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ART. I. *Travels through Sweden, Finland, and Lapland, to the North Cape,* in the Years 1798 and 1799. By Joseph Acerbi. Illustrated with seventeen elegant Engravings. 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 3s. Boards. Mawman. 1802.

IT is obvious that few literary productions are, on the whole, better calculated to combine instruction with entertainment than books of travels; and that the delineation of human character, however modified by external impressions, will always excite a warm interest. History exhibits to us the grand drama which has been performed on the face of the globe: but she scarcely ever unfolds the secret springs of those great events of which it is composed; and the details of ambition, war, and misery, form a picture which is sickening and monotonous. If biography were written with taste and judgment, if the materials were selected with care, and if the indiscriminate profusion of eulogy were scrupulously avoided, it might be deemed more engaging and more useful. The lively varied narrative of the accomplished traveller, however, possesses peculiar advantages. He takes a wider range; he views men in very different situations; he paints their characters, their manners, and their arts; he traces the operation of local causes, describes the nature of the climate and the quality of the soil, and portrays the influence of their political condition: all which he enlivens by judiciously interweaving the recital of his personal adventures. Distance of time and distance of place, though kindred relations, make dissimilar impressions on the mind. The former presents to us an invincible barrier, but we feel the possibility of passing the widest interval of space. It costs the imagination an effort to remount to the obscurity of remote ages; yet, with the utmost facility, we transport ourselves in idea to the extreme regions of the globe. We accompany the author in his route, we are interested in his success, and we sympathize with the dangers and difficulties which he encounters.

The work which now calls for our attention may be considered as a valuable accession to our stock of travels; since it possesses merit decidedly superior to that of the ordinary class of such compositions. Mr. Acerbi has chosen a field little inviting and rarely visited; and, though a native of Italy, he has ventured to explore the recesses of the Arctic Circle. Prompted by an ardent curiosity, he extended his journeys beyond the limits of the habitable world, and undauntingly traversed those gloomy sterile solitudes which are scarcely trodden by human feet, till his course was arrested on the shores of the Frozen Ocean:—as the motto in his title-page proclaims,

Existimus hic tandem, nobis ubi defuit orbis.

Though Nature, however, is there divested of her most attractive charms, she takes a bolder outline, and assumes those features of savage grandeur which inspire emotions of the sublime. The general impression is also wonderfully heightened by the singular character of the climate. During the summer months, the sun never sets; the unremitting action of his rays at length collects a heat which is almost insupportable; and in vain the hapless stranger invokes the blessing of night and repose; for even then he is annoyed by all the evils that infest the more humid regions of the tropics:—while in winter, the most opposite characteristics display themselves with equal energy. In order to travel with pleasure or profit, a rare concurrence of qualifications is required; activity, zeal, address, temper, and perseverance. With all these, Mr. Acerbi appears to be gifted in an eminent degree. Eager in the pursuit of knowlege, he patiently gleans information in every quarter: not deterred either by difficulty or the prospect of danger, he continually presses forwards with indefatigable resolution: apparently possessing those manners and accomplishments which gain esteem, he always finds easy access, and experiences a kind reception in the hospitable North; and he mixes freely with the natives, enters into their views, and partakes of their sports and amusements. From the polished Swede, he passes to the simple Finlander, and thence to the rude and unfeeling inhabitant of Lapland.

A foreigner, however well acquainted with our language, cannot be supposed to write it with the purity which should qualify it for the public eye: but Mr. Acerbi seems to have found an able assistant. The style of the work is clear and vigorous; and if it often bears marks of haste and carelessness, it rises at times to the character of elegance. Occasionally, the phraseology borders indeed on the coarse and colloquial; but it

is still genuine English composition, and very seldom betrays any traces of a French or Italian original.—The part which treats of Sweden was drawn up, the author informs us, for the entertainment of a small circle of his friends. It contains some particulars too bold, perhaps, for publication: but he was loth to soften and change it, and rather chose to sacrifice his private feelings to what he conceived to be the interest of truth. The portion of the volumes that relates to Finland and Lapland, which is the most copious and will probably be deemed the most interesting, he was, by motives of delicacy, long restrained from bringing forwards; because Colonel Skiöldebrand, a Swedish officer, who accompanied him in the adventurous journey to the North Cape, and who was an excellent draftsman, had announced his design of publishing at Stockholm the picturesque scenery of those countries, with descriptions of the objects represented in the engravings: but, when Mr. Acerbi observed that his friend's work appeared only in numbers, and would not be completed for several years,—and when he reflected that, under such circumstances, his own publication, so far from interfering with the other, might have some effect in promoting its circulation abroad,—his scruples were removed.

The author appears to have left his father's roof and his native land, when the fertile plains of Italy became a prey to the devastation of unrelenting war. Remote from scenes of blood and outrage, he sought improvement in travel; resolving not to return home till his country should again enjoy repose, and to wait the issue of the late eventful conflict which has subverted the political system of Europe.—After having resided some time in Germany, Mr. Acerbi visited Denmark, and thence, by the ordinary passage of the Sound, entered Sweden. It was in the autumn of 1798 that he landed at the small town of Helsinborg: but the season was already too far advanced; and it was perhaps, in that northern climate, the most uncomfortable time in the whole year, since the cold rains now prevailed, and the clear dry frosts of winter had not commenced. This circumstance appears to have produced an unfavourable impression on his mind. Natives, and even strangers, unanimously (and, we believe, with justice,) praise the cheapness and expedition of travelling in Sweden: but Mr. A. feels inclined to dispute the general opinion. He arrived, with his friend Mr. Bellotti, (whose name is only once incidentally mentioned,) ill prepared for travelling in such a country. They had indeed brought with them a *Wiener Wagen*, or one of those carriages built at Vienna, which, though much esteemed in Germany and sufficiently commodious, are yet of a heavy construction; but they had engaged

neither servant nor interpreter, nor any courier to dispatch for the purpose of bespeaking horses. Posting in Sweden, we must remark, is performed by a sort of *corvée*, every peasant holding lands of the crown being obliged to furnish in his turn a certain proportion of horses; and at every ten or fifteen miles, a post-house occurs, where one or two horses are commonly waiting the arrival of passengers: but, if a greater number be wanted, it becomes expedient previously to acquaint the post-master, that he may have time to summon the peasants who live dispersed at some distance. Their horses are small, but hardy and active; and the ordinary rate of travelling is about six or seven miles in an hour. The roads are indeed admirable, and, with some exceptions, superior even to those of England: which excellence is owing partly to the nature of the country, and partly to the judicious regulations that have been adopted. Sweden may be considered as one continued field of granite, which affords a dry hard bottom; and plenty of the best materials is every where found, to keep the roads in constant repair. Rock is the predominant feature, but its nakedness is in general covered with moss, or shaded by pines; and the traveller contemplates (it may almost be said) one extensive forest, broken with frequent lakes, and leaving only some small spots, where the scanty soil is capable of cultivation. The surface is hilly, or rather craggy, but never mountainous. The roads are laid out with equal taste and skill, and wind with gentle bendings through the woods or along the sides of the sombre lakes. In a country so thinly peopled as Sweden, where the forests, the rocks, and the lakes, seem to dispute with man the occupation of the soil, we cannot expect frequent towns, nor even villages; and it is customary, therefore, in the more sequestered parts, for the traveller to carry some provisions with him. To balance this inconvenience, however, his expences are extremely moderate. The charge for each horse, three years ago, was only about one penny for the English mile.

In his journey to Gothenburg, Mr. Acerbi found little worth noticing. The most conspicuous place in the route is Warberg, a small village with a fortress, seated boldly on the edge of the sea. Gothenburg contains about fifteen thousand inhabitants, and is reckoned the second city of the kingdom. It enjoys a very large share of trade. Its situation is peculiarly romantic, on the side of the river Gotha, at some distance from its mouth, and encircled by an amphitheatre of towering and dreary rocks. In its interior it resembles the towns of Holland, being intersected by canals, with rows of trees along their margin, regularly clipped in the Dutch fashion. The

inhabitants

inhabitants of this place vie with those of the capital in every species of luxury. They are hospitable and friendly to strangers, and the ladies are celebrated for their amiable manners and elegant accomplishments.—A foundling-hospital has been erected at Gothenburg on a very liberal plan. Such institutions are no doubt prompted by the purest motives of humanity; yet we question whether they be entirely consistent with political wisdom. They may prevent some foul crimes; but, on the other hand, they certainly encourage licentiousness; and the children thrown on the public, after having received an expensive education, seldom become good members of society.

From Gothenburg, Mr. A. went to view the famous canal of Trolhätta, at the distance of about fifty miles. The navigation of the river Gotha, which connects the spacious lake Wenner with the sea, is here interrupted, for the space of three miles, by a succession of frightful cataracts and rapids. Nothing on this side of the Atlantic can exceed the wild sublimity of the scenery. A vast body of water, almost of the whole of the Gotha, pent into a narrow channel, precipitates itself with awful crash from a height of upwards of sixty feet into a fathomless abyss; and, while yet boiling and foaming, it again dashes repeatedly from other ledges, and then rushes along with fury over a rocky bottom, till it spends its force and loses itself in a wide basin. In front of the spectator, rises perpendicularly to an altitude of three or four hundred feet, a rampart of granitic rock, which, bristling with its darksome pines, frowns majestically over the cataract. The other side presents a pleasing contrast, several saw-mills being perched among the cliffs, and turned by small detached torrents *.

Gustavus Vasa conceived the magnificent plan of joining the Baltic with the North Sea, by connecting a chain of lakes, the Mälar, the Hjelmar, and the Wenner, which are not far disjoined; and which, with the river Gotha, would form a communication extending from Stockholm to Gothenburg. Were this scheme realized, besides the obvious commercial advantages which it offers, the Swedes might avoid paying the Sound dues to Denmark: but the construction of a canal at Trolhätta, which was part of the plan, appeared of more immediate and practical utility. It was begun by Charles XII.

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* The etymology of the name *Trolhätta* is expressive of the feelings of the simple natives It is compounded of two Swedish words, *Troll* and *Hutta;* the first of which, equivalent to the English *Trull* or *Drole*, signifies a *witch* or *gypsy*, and the second denotes a *hut* or *habitation*. All remarkable appearances are ascribed by the vulgar to the power of magic. *Rev.*

whose passionate love of glory, had it been rightly directed, would have proved highly beneficial to his kingdom; and the attempt was at different times resumed in the succeeding reigns, and large sums of money were foolishly squandered without making any solid advancement. At last the undertaking was transferred to a company of merchants, deeply interested in its success, and who subscribed liberally on the prospect of a toll granted to them. Under their active management, the canal was prosecuted, and completed in five or six years. Mr. Acerbi saw it in its progress, and again after it was finished. It is certainly the grandest work of the kind that has been yet executed, and reflects the highest credit on the spirit and ingenuity of the Swedish nation.—To form a just idea of the difficulties surmounted, we must not consider the length of the canal so much as its great width, the frequency of the locks, and the refractory nature of the materials in which the excavation is made. It is cut through a hill, or continued rock of the hardest granite, by the force of gun-powder and the usual operations of mining; and the canal has nine locks, with their intermediate basins; of which the depth is about sixteen, and the breadth twenty-two feet. It can therefore admit ships of very large burthen.

Proceeding from Trolhätta to Stockholm, Mr. A. found that the face of the country began to improve. The woods became enlivened by an intermixture of birch and mountain-ash; and he saw some oaks also, but they were rare, and stunted or decayed *.—In approaching the capital, the traveller stopped to view the royal stables in the park of Strömsholm; and he was there struck with a circumstance which merits attention. The horses were allowed no litter, but stood on a raised floor composed of boards with open joints. This plan is common in Norway and Denmark, where cows and even pigs are likewise housed on similar platforms. The animals are in this way easily kept clean and dry; and to this practice it is perhaps owing that, in those northern countries, a foundered horse is seldom to be seen. In the mode followed in other places, the warm humid compost of dung and litter seems to have the effect of making the feet tender and liable to disease. We are glad to learn that the Duke of York has,

* On this occasion, we may remark that the oak and wheat affect the same temperature, and are fitted only for the middle regions of the globe. They will not grow spontaneously beyond the latitude of 58 degrees at the level of the sea. Oaks are unknown between the tropics, and wheat does not thrive in that burning climate.

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by way of experiment, directed some barracks to be constructed on the Swedish plan.

In Sweden, as indeed in Denmark and the north of Germany, the principal crop is rye; and next come oats, pease, and a little barley. Scarcely any wheat is grown, except in the plains of Upsal, and in the province of Scania, which is of a very distinct character from the rest of the kingdom. Mr. Acerbi treats the agriculture of the Swedes with some severity: but, had he made the proper allowance for the quality of the soil and the nature of the climate, he would have found more to praise than to blame. Their implements are simple, yet well constructed and managed with skill. The scantiness of provisions in Sweden obliges the inhabitants to bring as much of the surface under cultivation as they can possibly manage. In many parts, the woods are cleared, as in North America, by setting fire to the trees, when the plough is introduced among the charred trunks, and the ground roughly scratched: but this indiscreet passion for tillage is often, as also in the New World, productive of the worst consequences. The thin soil, pulverized by the summer heats, is soon swept away by the rains of autumn, and leaves the bare rock encumbered sometimes with loose masses of granite. No trees spring up to cover the surface, for their scattered seeds can hardly take root; and the tender shoots, now without shelter, cannot withstand the fury of the piercing winds. Whole tracts are thus condemned to perpetual sterility, and remind the traveller of the *Terra del Fuego* of the Patagonians.

It is somewhat remarkable that heath, which spreads over the high grounds in England and covers the mountains of Wales and Scotland, is rarely seen even in the wildest parts of Sweden: in fact, both that plant and furze are almost unknown on the Continent.—In certain seasons, the cows are dispersed in the woods, where they pick up a coarse herbage. Those who tend the herds, and who are generally females, call them together by means of a pipe or trumpet, five feet long, composed of two pieces of birch hollowed, and bound firmly together by a ribband of the inner bark. This rude instrument gives a shrill woodland note, which is heard at a great distance.

Stockholm, where the author spent the winter, is rendered by its situation unquestionably the most picturesque capital in Europe. It is built on a number of small islands at the extremity of the lake Mälar, which there discharges itself into a narrow inlet communicating with the Baltic Sea. The surrounding rocky heights are sprinkled with trees, or enlivened by frequent villas; and from these eminences, the stranger

enjoys the most enchanting prospect. Crowded buildings, noble edifices, castles, spires, and ships, appear floating as by the effect of magic in a blue expanse of water.—The new quarters of the city are regular and elegant. A stately range of houses, occupied by the principal merchants, extends along the quay, to which vessels of the greatest burthen may approach. The palace is a simple but majestic structure; and the residence of the princess royal and the opera-house are deservedly admired as fine pieces of architecture.—In winter, the scene is totally changed. The several islands become united in one field of ice; and even the gulf below the Mälar, being (like the waters of the Baltic) only brackish, does not long resist the impression of the frost. It is then the season of amusement and festivity. All ages mingle in one crowd. Sledges, and other vehicles mounted on slides, sweep with rapidity along the ice, by the sides of the ships now fast locked: while skaters whirl in giddy mazes, and astonish the spectators by the dexterity of their feats. Mr. Acerbi relates an incident that happened during his stay at Stockholm, which will give an idea of the severity of the cold in that high latitude:

'In the winter 1799, I beheld at Stockholm a spectacle of a very uncommon nature, and such as I never, in all probability, shall see a second time. It was a sugar-house on fire in the suburb, on the south side of the city. The accident being announced by the discharge of cannon, all the fire-engines were immediately hurried to the aid of the owners. The severity of that winter was so great, that there was not a single spot near, where the water was not frozen to the depth of a yard from the surface. It was necessary to break the ice with hatchets and hammers, and to draw up the water as from a well. Immediately on filling the casks, they were obliged to carry them off with all possible speed, lest the water should be congealed, as in fact about a third part of it was by the time it could be brought to the place where it was wanted. In order to prevent it as much as possible from freezing, they constantly kept stirring it about with a stick; but even this operation had only a partial effect. At last, by the united power of many engines, which launched forth a great mass of water, the fire was got under, after destroying only the roof, the house itself being very little damaged. It was in the upper stories of the building that the stock of sugar was deposited; there were also many vessels full of treacle, which being broken by the falling-in of the roof, the juice ran down along the sides of the walls. The water thrown up to the top of the house by the engines, and flowing back on the walls, stair cases, and through the windows, was stopped in its downward course by the mighty power of the frost. After the fire was extinguished, the engines continued for some time to play, and the water they discharged was frozen almost the instant it came in contact with the walls already covered with ice. Thus a house was formed of the most extraordinary appearance that

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it is possible to conceive. It was so curious an object that every body came to gaze at it as a something wonderful. The whole building from top to bottom was incrusted with a thick coat of ice: the doors and windows were closed up, and in order to gain admission it was necessary with hammers and hatchets to open a passage; they were obliged to cut through the ice another stair-case, for the purpose of ascending to the upper stories. All the rooms, and what remained of the roof, were embellished by long stalactites of multifarious shapes, and of a yellowish colour, composed of the treacle and congealed water. This building, contemplated in the light of the sun, seemed to bear some analogy to those diamond castles that are raised by the imaginations of poets. It remained upwards of two months in the same state, and was visited by all the curious. The children in particular had excellent amusement with it, and contributed not a little to the destruction of the enchanted palace, by searching for the particles of sugar, which were found in many places incorporated with the ice.'

During the summer months, when the short absence of the sun is supplied by twilight, people of condition leave town and retire to their villas, where they live in a style of great magnificence. Art is employed to second the productions of nature: their hot-houses afford peaches, pine-apples, and grapes; and all sorts of wines, liquors, and other delicacies, are lavished at their tables. The ceremonious air of the capital is laid aside, and ease and unrestrained freedom prevail.—The entertainments at the country-houses of the merchants are at once the most agreeable and the most splendid. They form the richest class in the north; and the nobility, unable to cope with them in expence, yet imbued with the pride of birth, are apt to distinguish themselves by lofty carriage and punctilious politeness.

People on the Continent seldom take exercise on horseback; and the Swedes are so much attached to card-playing, that they cannot have a proper relish for the pleasures of the country. From Stockholm, the principal excursions are to the royal parks in the vicinity. Haga is a charming retreat, where the late king built a small palace with great taste. The castle of Drottningholm, or Queen's Island, is a magnificent edifice, beautifully situated on the margin of the lake Mälar. This is the usual residence of the court; and in the gardens adjoining, is an annual exhibition of the *tournament*, in which the laws and ceremonies of chivalry are strictly observed.—The deer park of Stockholm is of large extent, planted with trees of various kinds, among which are some aged oaks. The court makes a formal procession round it on the first of May.—Another remarkable custom is thus related:

'On the twenty-fourth of June, or Midsummer-day, it is the custom to place shrubs and flowers at the doors of great houses, as they do in France on the first of May, and according to what I have heard also in England. On that day the king and royal family come to the park, where they take up their abode in tents for the remainder of the month, that is, for the space of nearly a week. A camp is formed of the garrison of Stockholm, composed of two regiments of foot-guards, some companies of horse-guards, and a corps of artillery. Along the lines of the camp they raise poles or posts, adorned with branches of cyphers, and sometimes scutcheons with mottos or devices. At the foot of the posts are placed barrels of beer on wooden frames: about six or seven o'clock in the afternoon, on a particular signal, the barrels are opened; when each soldier is presented with a pipe, a loaf of bread, two herrings, and some money. All this is done at the expence of the officers. In the mean time the military music plays, and the soldiers begin to drink and to dance. Upon each of the barrels sits a soldier, in the form of a Bacchus, or some other figure, more or less ridiculous. Those that are dressed up in this manner first take the liquor and propose the toasts, which are generally numerous, and constantly accompanied with the cry of *vivat*, answering to the English huzza. When any of the royal family, or a general officer, chance to pass by, their healths are drank, and always with the same accompaniment of *vivat*. A kind of masquerade ensues for a short time, during which the soldiers amuse the people, that flock round them in the lines of the camp, with songs, and indulge themselves in various freaks and acts of merriment. On the beating of the retreat, every thing is again submitted to the reign of order. Such festivals, without diminishing respect, certainly tend to excite in the soldiery and people an interest and attachment to the royal family.'

The severity of the winter at Stockholm is less felt than might be expected. The Swedish stove is of the very best construction, and it diffuses an agreeable warmth through the apartment, with the smallest expence of fuel. In order to enable themselves to encounter the keen air out of doors, the natives use additional clothing and outer shoes, and wrap themselves in pellices: with which precautions, Mr. Acerbi asserts, though the cold was below 25 degrees of Celsius, or 13 below zero of Fahrenheit's scale, he suffered less from it than he had sometimes done in Italy. During the winter months, people of fortune spend their evenings in banquets, assemblies, concerts, and operas. The balls at the Exchange are particularly attractive. They are frequented by the royal family, and all the beauty and fashion of the capital are seen there collected. The Swedish ladies are in general extremely handsome; possessing fine shapes, soft Grecian features, and clear blooming complexions: but this mild retiring sort of beauty was not, it seems, quite to the taste of an Italian. He considered it as

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rather insipid, and he prefers the dark sparkling eyes and animated vivacity which distinguish the ladies of the South. He alleges, indeed, that the females of Sweden are of a cold temperament, incapable of ardent attachments, and actuated chiefly by vanity and a passion for dress and finery: that they are somewhat inclined to coquetry, fond of admiration, and flattered by public notice and distinction.

Stockholm contains no *women of the town*; but it is usual to keep mistresses by a sort of partnership. The venal beauty receives the visits of several lovers, perhaps seven or eight, who jointly contribute to support her in a style far above her condition in life. She exacts from them the most ceremonious attentions in public, and none are admitted to share her favours without a previous introduction and a formal courtship.

To give our readers a full idea of the state of society in Stockholm, we transcribe Mr. Acerbi's description of a Swedish entertainment. The picture, we believe, is on the whole exact, but we think that the colouring is somewhat overcharged:

'The Swedish dinner parties are expensive arrangements of show and formality. It will often happen that out of forty or fifty people, who appear in consequence of an invitation sent with all possible ceremony, and perhaps a week or a fortnight before the appointed day, scarcely three or four know one another sufficiently to make the meeting agreeable. A foreigner may still fare worse, and have the misfortune of being seated near a person totally unacquainted with any language but his own. Before the company sit down to dinner, they first pay their respects to a side-table laden with bread, butter, cheese, pickled salmon, and *liqueur*, or brandy; and by the tasting of these previous to their repast, endeavour to give an edge to their appetite, and to stimulate the stomach to perform its office. After this prelude, the guests arrange themselves about the dinner table, where every one finds at his place three kinds of bread, flat and coarse rye bread, white bread, and brown bread. The first sort of bread is what the peasants eat; it is crisp and dry: the second sort is common bread; but the brown, last mentioned, has a sweet taste, being made with the water with which the vessels in the sugar houses are washed, and is the nastiest thing possible. All the dishes are at once put upon the table, but no one is allowed to ask for what he likes best, the dishes being handed round in regular succession; and an Englishman has often occasion for all his patience to wait till the one is put in motion on which he has fixed his choice. The Swedes are more knowing in this respect, and, like the French, eat of every thing that comes before them: and although the different dishes do not seem to harmonize together, yet such is the force of habit, that the guests apparently find no inconvenience from the most opposite mixtures. Anchovies, herrings, onions, eggs, pastry, often meet together on the same plate, and are swallowed promiscuously. The sweet is associated with the sour, mustard with sugar, confectionaries with salt meat or salt fish;

fish; in short, eatables are intermingled with a poetical licence, that sets the precept of Horace at defiance—

Sed non ut placidis coeant immitia.

An Italian is not very much at a loss at these feasts; but an Englishman finds himself quite uncomfortable and out of his element: he sees no wine drank either with the ladies or the gentlemen during dinner; but must take it himself in a solitary manner: he is often obliged to wait *for hours* before he can help himself to what he prefers to eat, and when the meat arrives, he generally thinks it not dressed plain enough, but disagreeable from the quantity of spices with which it is seasoned. After dinner the ladies do not leave him to his bottle; he is expected to adjourn immediately with them to the drawing-room, where the company, after thanking the master and mistress of the house with a polite or rather ceremonious bow for their good cheer, are regaled with tea and coffee. I have not entered into a circumstantial description of these long dinners, but only given the general outline, that I might not inflict upon my readers that *ennui*, which I confess I have myself sometimes experienced when I was among the number of the guests. In the interval between dinner and supper, which however, from the many hours that are thought necessary for the acts of eating and drinking, is not long, there is no amusement whatever but playing at cards. If you cannot join in this rational recreation, you are abandoned to your fate, and may sit in some corner of the room, indulging in meditation on whatever subject you please.'

The stiffness which pervades the Swedish manners seems to originate in the court;—the most formal, certainly, in Europe, and entrenched in ceremonies and etiquette. The dress, however, being the national costume, is not expensive.

'A drawing-room terminates commonly in a public supper for the royal family, who sit alone at table, all the nobility and officers of the kingdom standing round as mere spectators. The ladies of the senators, and others of equal rank, have the privilege of being seated on *tabourets*, placed in semicircles at a distance from the table, in front of the king and queen. The household officers of the different branches of the royal family stand behind the chair of the personage to whom they belong: the senators at his Majesty's left hand, and the ambassadors with other foreigners of distinction at his right. The king speaks to every one according to their rank, the degree of favour they possess with him, or other circumstances. The dishes are served, and the plates presented to the royal family by an officer called gentleman of the court. The marshal stands directly opposite the king during the whole of the entertainment, and the steward of his Majesty's household a little to the right behind him. Though the presence of these officers be wholly useless, it is thought necessary to complete the groupe. When the king has dined, he makes a sign to the queen and to the rest of the family, and all having answered with a bow, he rises from the table, takes a most gracious leave, and withdraws to his own apartments, followed by the officers of the court.

court. The rest of the royal family do the same; no one presumes to retire before they have quitted the room.'

Yet, to form a singular contrast with this ceremoniousness, there is no country in which the king and the princes of the blood mix more familiarly with the people. Gustavus III. gave private suppers twice or thrice in a week; no ceremony nor distinction was then observed; and his majesty delighted the company by pointed remarks and sallies of wit and humour. The duke of Sudermania, when regent, was also very attentive to his guests: but the present king, though studiously polite, is of a reserved character; and gaiety, magnificence, and pleasure, are banished from the court.—Gustavus III. was fond of distinction, and had exalted notions of regal power. His affability and address won the hearts of the people. He was anxious to lull them into security, by diffusing a taste for pleasure and even for licentious dissipation; and all his schemes appeared directed to that end. The sciences he treated with neglect; and even the fine arts, which he encouraged, were only designed to mollify and subdue the independent spirit of the Swedes, and to divert their thoughts from his ambitious views. Under his reign, the national manners became visibly relaxed. Charles XII. lavished indeed the blood of the Swedes, but he inflamed their pride and heroism. Gustavus III. sought to extinguish every spark of honour, and every sentiment of freedom. His memory, therefore, is regretted only by painters, musicians, comedians, and *particular* favourites.—During the regency of the duke of Sudermania, a considerable change and improvement took place in the Swedish government. Peace was cultivated and œconomy practised. Liberty of discussion was tacitly permitted; and people again began to feel the inspiration of freedom.—The present king has adopted a line of conduct in every respect the reverse of that of his uncle. With feeble powers of mind, he is yet obstinate and conceited, and ambitious of governing without ministers. Under the influence of two priests, he is deeply tinctured with superstition; and the established form of Lutheran worship degenerates into the rites and ceremonies of popery. The liberty of the press is completely extinct; the reign of ignorance and bigotry gains ground; and Sweden now appears doomed to sink into the gloomy barbarism which envelopes Portugal and Spain.

Mr. Acerbi employs two chapters in describing the Swedish academies or learned societies, with characteristic anecdotes of the members. In his preliminary remarks, he questions whether, in the present advanced state of knowlege, such associations are of real and unalloyed utility; whether, like other corporations, they do not tend to a narrow exclusive

spirit,

spirit, and are not apt to degenerate into servile engines of the court; and he apprehends that, instead of anticipating the public voice and cherishing the efforts of rising genius, they have often employed their influence in discouraging and repressing them. Are not all institutions, however, liable to similar abuses? Men must be actuated by grosser motives than the mere love of science or the arts. The passion of vanity produces a beneficial alliance of rank, wealth, and talents. Activity is thus roused, emulation kindled, and many discoveries are brought to light which, without such powerful excitements, would have perished in embryo.

There are three academies at Stockholm: 1. The *Academy of Belles-Lettres*, the objects of which are antiquities and monumental inscriptions. It consists of twenty ordinary members, fourteen honorary, and sixteen foreign, amounting in all to fifty.—2dly, The *Swedish Academy*, instituted by the late king for the purpose of refining the Swedish language, which possesses great natural beauties, and is extremely soft and mellifluous. It has only eighteen members.—3dly, The *Royal Academy of Sciences*, which was founded in 1739. The members are composed of one hundred natives, and a considerable number of foreign associates. Their memoirs are published quarterly. The only funds of the society are the profits arising from the exclusive sale of almanacs, and which amount annually to nearly four hundred pounds. In 1709 the Academy was divided into *seven* classes; an arrangement altogether capricious, derived apparently from a veneration for that mystical number.—Mr. Acerbi names the members of each academy, and gives short sketches of their characters: but we wish that this part of his journal had been suppressed. To an Englishman it cannot be very interesting, and the information must evidently be drawn from suspicious sources. Spleen or disappointment will vent itself in caricaturing obnoxious individuals; and a traveller makes a very ungracious return for the civilities with which he is loaded, when he employs his time in raking together satirical anecdotes. Some of the academicians are mentioned in terms much below their deserts, and others are treated with unmerited disrespect. We would instance particularly Mr. Edelcrantz, a gentleman of taste and mechanical invention; who, we understand, is now at Paris, and means to spend the winter in England and Scotland.

The curious traveller derives both amusement and instruction from visiting the chamber of models at Stockholm. He there sees a multitude of ingenious contrivances of various kinds, calculated for the improvement of agriculture and manufactures. The annual exhibition of paintings, which takes

place

place in March, is another source of entertainment. It is freely open to the public, and is for some time a fashionable resort. The productions exposed are on the whole very respectable.

In the Swedish dominions are three universities; those of Lund, Upsala, and Abo *. Lund is situated in Scania, within sight of the Danish shores, on a healthy fertile plain. The number of professors, with their *adjuncts* or assistants, amounts to fifty. There are generally about three hundred students, chiefly of the poorer sort, and formerly noted for their riotous disposition. The studies pursued are chiefly the languages, ethics, law, and theology.—The celebrated university of Upsala was founded in 1346, on the model of that of Bologna; and it was in the sequel amply endowed by Gustavus Vasa. Many scholarships are annexed to it; and there are about sixty professors, with their assistants. The number of students was formerly very great; and even so late as the year 1730 it amounted to two thousand: but at present they seldom exceed five hundred. They are decent and assiduous. All the branches of knowlege are ably taught, and Upsala is justly esteemed the first seminary of the North.—The university of Abo in Finland was founded in 1640, by the famous queen Christina. It is endowed with the same privileges as Upsala, but on a smaller scale. The Swedish have, like the German universities, two courses annually: but (which appears peculiar to them, and is very commendable,) they associate in their body the teachers of the polite accomplishments, those of the modern languages, of dancing, fencing, and music. In Sweden, judicious measures have been adopted for diffusing elementary instruction. Every parish has a school, in which reading and writing are gratuitously taught; and in all the towns there are *gymnasia* for the study of the antient languages, supported likewise at the expence of government. Denmark is still more attentive to the education of her subjects. Provisions to the same effect are general in the Prussian states, and throughout the whole of protestant Germany.—It is truly painful to observe that England, possessing many noble advantages, is so far behind the rest of Europe in establishments for the education of youth. The ignorance of the lower orders is one evident cause of the multiplied crimes and disorders which fill our gaols.

[*To be continued.*]

* Pronounced Oboo. *Rev.*

Ives.

ART.

ART. II. *Thalaba the Destroyer*; a Metrical Romance. By Robert Southey. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 14s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1801.

IT is not easy either to class or to appreciate this singular performance. It has many faults and many striking beauties. It is irregular and splendid, improbable and interesting, and at once extravagant and elaborate. It presents us with European characters in the costume of Arabia, and combines in one fantastic assemblage the mythologies of Persia with the fictions of the Koran and the superstitions of our Western world. The hand of a poet is discernible throughout, but it changes its instrument and its tone rather too often; and it blends the Lyric and Dramatic style with the sober strain of the Epic, rather more copiously than the strict rules of harmonious composition will admit.—The versification corresponds with the irregularity of the whole structure. It is a medley of all sorts of measures in blank verse, and furnishes fully as many instances of harsh and startling transitions, as of pleasing and original harmonies.

The story and action of the poem are altogether oriental. The father and brethren of Thalaba had been assassinated at the instigation of certain associated sorcerers, whom the stars had forewarned of their danger from that family: but the mother and her infant son are saved by the special interposition of heaven, and are represented as flying at midnight across the desarts of Arabia.—The poem opens with their wanderings; and they are ready to perish with fatigue and hunger, when all at once a stately palace and magnificent garden rise up in the moonshine before them.—They pass through its solitary walks, and at last discover a man lying under a tree, who tells them that this is the paradise of *Irem*, constructed many ages before by Shedad the King; who, for his impiety, was cut off by the visitation of Providence, with all his people, and whose splendid paradise was left desolate and forsaken. A spell was cast upon the place, by virtue of which it had ever since remained invisible, and he (the narrator) had been the only inhabitant of its solitude for years and centuries which he had forgotten to number. When this narrative is concluded, the death-angel makes his appearance, and takes away the life-sick man and the weeping mother of Thalaba; announcing at the same time to him that he was destined to revenge his father's death, and to root out the sorcerer's breed from the world.—The curtain is then dropped, and the first book ended.

Our readers will easily perceive that there is no great artifice in the contrivance of this fable. The feelings are called forth for the widow and the stranger, and an interest is excited in regard to them that is expected to be carried through most of the poem: instead of which, they both pass off without a minute's warning, and leave the reader to find a new hero, and the author to make a new *beginning* to his fable.—It would be unjust to Mr. Southey, however, not to take some notice of the many poetical beauties which are contained in this book.—The subsequent lines have a portion of Miltonic grandeur in their structure, united to a certain barbaric splendour:

'Trees of such ancient majesty
Towered not on Yemen's happy hills,
Nor crowned the stately brow of Lebanon.
Fabric so vast, so lavishly enriched,
For Idol, or for Tyrant, never yet
Raised the slave-race of men
In Rome, nor in the elder Babylon,
Nor old Persepolis,
Nor where the family of Greece
Hymned Eleutherian Jove.
Here studding azure tablatures
And rayed with feeble light,
Star-like the ruby and the diamond shone:
Here on the golden towers
The yellow moon-beam lay;
Here with white splendour floods the silver wall.
Less wonderous pile and less magnificent
Sennamar built at Hirah, tho' his art
Sealed with one stone the ample edifice,
And made its colours, like the serpent's skin,
Play with a changeful beauty.'——

The more minute description of the palace is rather tedious, and is very particular without being distinct. Amid the glare of gold, silver, and precious stones, one image came upon us with a refreshing simplicity:

'Here emerald columns o'er the marble courts
Fling their green rays, as when amid a shower
The sun shines loveliest on the vernal corn.'

A considerable strength of poetical fancy, as well as truth of feeling, is displayed in the following lamentation:

'Oh! who can tell the unspeakable misery
Of solitude like this!
No sound hath ever reached my ear
Save of the passing wind.
The fountain's everlasting flow;
The forest in the gale,

The pattering of the shower,
Sounds dead and mournful all.
No bird hath ever closed her wing
Upon these solitary bowers,
No insect sweetly buzzed amid these groves,
From all things that have life,
Save only me, concealed.—
I know not for what ages I have dragged
This miserable life,
How often I have seen
These antient trees renewed,
What countless generations of mankind
Have risen and fallen asleep,
And I remain the same!"

The idea of duration is forcibly conveyed also by this passage:

'The trees and flowers remain
By Nature's care perpetuate and self-sown.
The marble statues long have lost all trace
Of heroes and of chiefs,
Huge shapeless stones they lie
O'er-grown with many a flower.'

The second book transports us into the den of the sorcerer, in 'the Domdaniel caverns under the roots of the ocean;' where they are raging and fretting, on finding that any of the Destroyer's race have escaped.—Here is a specimen of Mr. S.'s powers in the horrible:

'A Teraph stood against the cavern side,
A new-born infant's head,
That Khawla at his hour of birth had seized
And from the shoulders wrung.
It stood upon a plate of gold,
An unclean Spirit's name inscribed beneath.
The cheeks were deathy dark,
Dark the dead skin upon the hairless skull;
The lips were bluey pale;
Only the eyes had life,
They gleamed with demon light.'

Abdaldar, one of the magicians, is then sent out to seek and destroy the surviving child:

'Him every morn the all-beholding Eye
Saw from his couch, unhallowed by a prayer,
Rise to the scent of blood,
And every night lie down.
That rankling hope within him, that by day
Goaded his steps, still stinging him in sleep,
And startling him with vain accomplishment

From

From visions still the same.
Many a time his wary hand
To many a youth applied the Ring,
And still the dagger in his mantle hid
Was ready for the deed.

'At length to the cords of a tent
That were stretched by an Island of Palms
In the desolate sea of the sands,
The weary traveller came.
Under a shapely palm,
Herself as shapely, there a Damsel stood.
She held her ready robe
And looked towards a Boy,
Who from the tree above
With one hand clinging to its trunk,
Cast with the other down the clustered dates.'

The youth was Thalaba: but before the sorcerer could find an opportunity of aiming his blow, the whole pious family prostrate themselves in prayer:

'All, save Abdaldar; over Thalaba
He stands, and lifts the dagger to destroy.
Before his lifted arm received
Its impulse to descend,
The Blast of the Desert came.
Prostrate in prayer, the pious family
Felt not the Simoom pass.
They rose, and lo! the Sorcerer lying dead,
Holding the dagger in his blasted hand.'

The third book contains an account of Thalaba's youth and education. A pious Arab had found him, and educated him as his own child in a solitary tent, where he had formed an innocent and ardent attachment to Oneiza, the daughter of his protector.—Much vivacity and poetical painting occur in the descriptive part of this book, as well as tenderness and simplicity of sentiment.

Thalaba, having taken a magic ring from the finger of Abdaldar, and by means of it having procured his father's bow and arrows, now waited impatiently for some signal that should call him to his destined work of destruction. A flight of locusts and an eclipse of the sun accomplish this end in a manner not very intelligible, and he sets out alone at the close of the third book on this desperate enterprize.

In the outset of Book IV. he meets his mother's spirit, who tells him to go to Babylon, and petition the angels there for the talisman necessary for his success. He then proceeds, and meets by a fountain's side another sorcerer, who in the disguise of a venerable old man had been sent to seduce or de-

stroy him.—Their conversation is on the whole very fatiguing. The sorcerer endeavours to obtain his predecessor's ring from the youth, but *a wasp stings his finger* opportunely as he is about to draw it off, and the swelling makes it impossible. Then the wizard spreads a mist over the face of the sky, and misleads Thalaba into the depths of the desart; where, after he has suffered intolerable agony from thirst, the old man proposes to him to call for assistance from the genii of the ring, since Allah and the Prophet will not hear them. The Destroyer rejects this counsel with disdain, and the baffled tempter calls his enchanted chariot and prepares to leave him;

' And lo! the magic car begins its course!
Hark! hark!—he screams—Lobaba screams!
What, wretch, and hast thou raised
The rushing Terrors of the Wilderness
To fall on thine own head?
Death! death! inevitable death!
Driven by the breath of God,
A column of the Desert met his way.'

The interest of this book is inferior to that of any of the preceding, and the poetical imagery more scanty and less happily selected.

Book v. conducts the Destroyer to the ruins of Babylon. Some fine description is displayed in this part, but it is too much scattered and disjointed to be exhibited to advantage in a quotation.

In this aweful solitude, he meets with a stranger who professes to have come like himself for the purpose of consulting the angels, and offers to guide him to the cave of their residence: but it soon appears that this votary came for the unholy purpose of compelling these spirits, by diabolical spells, to reveal their profitable secret. Thalaba and he quarrel and fight in the depths of the enchanted cavern, and the stranger is thrown by the Destroyer down the deep abyss which yawned at their feet. Then Thalaba thus addresses the imprisoned spirits:

" I, Thalaba, the Servant of the Lord,
Invoke you; hear, me Angels! so may Heaven
Accept and mitigate your penitence.
I go to root from earth the Sorcerer brood,
Tell me the needful Talisman!"

' Thus as he spake, recumbent to the rock
Beyond the black abyss,
Their forms grew visible.
A settled sorrow sate upon their brows,
Sorrow alone, for trace of guilt and shame
No more remained; and gradual as by prayer

The

The sin was purged away,
Their robe of glory, purified of stain,
Resumed the lustre of its native light.

' In awe the youth received the answering voice,
" Son of Hodeirah ! thou hast proved it here;
The Talisman is Faith."

This passage terminates the fifth book and the first volume. On the morning after his return from the cave, Thalaba finds a horse without a bridle standing by his side; who invites him by his gestures to mount, and carries him forwards for two whole days. The animal leaves him at last on the second evening in a valley, where ' he laid him down to sleep ;' on the following morning, he proceeds towards the mountain ; and, after having wound up a long ascent, he enters a close passage in the rock which opened at length into an enchanted valley. Here he meets with troops of banqueters, resists the wiles of many siren forms, and plunges into the solitude of the forest in order to enjoy the melancholy of his own thoughts.

' Deserts of Araby !
His soul returned to you.
He cast himself upon the earth
And closed his eyes, and called
The voluntary vision up.
A cry as of distress
Aroused him ; loud it came, and near !
He started up, he strung his bow,
He plucked the arrow forth.
Again a shriek—a woman's shriek !
And lo ! she rushes thro' the trees,
Her veil all rent, her garments torn !
He follows close, the ravisher—
Even on the unechoing grass
She hears his tread, so close !
" Prophet, save me ; save me, God !
Help ! help !" she cried to Thalaba.
Thalaba drew the bow.
The unerring arrow did its work of death.
He turned him to the woman, and beheld
His own Oneiza, his Arabian Maid.'

In the seventh book, Oneiza tells him that she had been carried away from her father's tent in the night, and brought to this polluted paradise, to be ' a houri of the earth.' They confer together on the possibility of their escape : but all egress is found to be impracticable, and Thalaba resolves to attack the sorcerer lord of this unholy place. This he accomplishes in a way which it would be tedious for us to describe ; and

immediately avenging lightnings and tempests destroy the paradise of Sin. Thalaba and Oneiza return down the valley, and meet the army of a pious Sultan, who had taken arms against the departed sorcerer. The Destroyer is received with great honour; and, elated with his success and the recovery of his Oneiza, he urges her to consent to their immediate union: but she bids him consider that her father is in sorrow, and his own mission still unaccomplished. At length, however, she consents, and the nuptials are celebrated with great pomp and festivity.—The tragical termination of the scene is intimated somewhat abruptly in these two lines, with which the book concludes;

> 'Who comes from the bridal chamber?
> It is Azrael, the Angel of Death.'

The next book shews us Thalaba lying on the grave of his bride:

> 'The sun, and the wind, and the rain
> Had rusted his raven locks,
> His cheeks were fallen in,
> His face bones prominent,
> By the tomb he lay along,
> And his lean fingers played,
> Unwitting, with the grass that grew beside.'

Here her father finds him, and her spirit visits them at midnight:

> "O Thalaba!" she cried,
> Abandon not thyself!
> "Wouldst thou for ever lose me?—go, fulfill
> Thy quest, that in the Bowers of Paradise
> In vain I may not wait thee, O my Husband!"
> To Moath then the Spirit
> Turned the dark lustre of her Angel eyes,
> "Short is thy destined path,
> O my dear father! to the abode of bliss.
> Return to Araby,
> There with the thought of death
> Comfort thy lonely age,
> And Azrael the Deliverer soon
> Shall visit thee in peace."

He then meets with a Dervise, who advises him to go to consult the Simorg respecting his future course; and he proceeds to the dwelling of that fabulous bird, through a weary wilderness of snow. When he is nearly spent with cold and toil, he sees a fire at a distance, and finds a damsel spinning in a cavern, and singing 'an unintelligible song.' She invites him to twine the thread which she was spinning, round his hands,

hands; she then calls her sister sorceress to partake her triumph, and dispose of the captive Destroyer; and after having consulted the dæmons, they carry him away to the island of Mohareb.

The ninth book is on the whole the dullest in the poem: it consists of an account of the different devices which the witches employ to take away the life of the Destroyer, with the interposition by which he is saved: the few following lines, however, may be quoted as a fine description of military music:

'He comes! the Sultan! hark the swelling horn,
The trumpet's spreading blair,
The timbrel tinkling as its silver bells
Twinkle aloft, and the shrill cymbal's sound,
Whose broad brass flashes in the morning sun
Accordant light and music! closing all
The heavy Gong is heard,
That falls like thunder on the dizzy ear.'

In book x., Thalaba is restored to his snowy desart, and proceeds on his pilgrimage to the Simorg.—On his way he again meets with an enchanted habitation, and finds a damsel sleeping in the midst of a garden that blooms in the airy region, by means of a fountain of fire which played all around it. She was the daughter of a magician, and had been destined to die by the hands of Thalaba.—The magician comes, and, aiming at the Destroyer, kills his daughter in his arms; Thalaba spares him in pity, and continues his progress. This episode is narrated in a very pleasing manner, and forms one of the most interesting parts of the volume.

In the eleventh book, Thalaba advances towards the dwelling of the Simorg, under the guidance of a green bird which flies before him, provides him with food, and sleeps every night in his bosom. This was the spirit of Laila, the magician's innocent daughter.—At last,

'A sheltered Valley opened on his view!
It was the Simorg's vale,
The dwelling of the ancient Bird.

'On a green and mossy bank,
Beside a rivulet
The Bird of Ages stood.
No sound intruded on his solitude,
Only the rivulet was heard
Whose everlasting flow
From the birth-day of the world had made
The same unvaried murmuring.
Here dwelt the all-knowing Bird
In deep tranquillity,

His eyelids ever closed
In full enjoyment of profound repose.'

From this venerable animal, the Destroyer receives instructions how to proceed, and mounts a sledge which he finds prepared and yoked with lean black dogs. They set off with him at full speed; by degrees, he descends into a milder climate; and the dogs leave him at a spring, on which floated a little boat steered by a fair damsel, and with one seat for the Destroyer. He embarks with her, and sails till the rivulet opens to a river, and the river widens into a sea:

'The Moon is bright, the sea is calm,
The little boat rides rapidly
Across the ocean waves;
The line of moonlight on the deep
Still follows as they voyage on;
The winds are motionless;
The gentle waters gently part
In murmurs round the prow.
He looks above, he looks around,
The boundless heaven, the boundless sea,
The crescent moon, the little boat,
Nought else above, below.'

At the end of the book, the Destroyer arrives at the rocky shores under which is the entrance to the Domdaniel cave, where he is to take vengeance on all his enemies.

In the beginning of the last book, he enters the terrible recess; and the damsel leaves him at the adamantine gates:

'He tarried not,—he past
The threshold, over which was no return.
All earthly thoughts, all human hopes
And passions now put off,
He cast no backward glance
Towards the gleam of day.
There was a light within,
A yellow light, as when the autumnal Sun
Through travelling rain and mist
Shines on the evening hills.
Whether from central fires effused,
Or if the sunbeams day by day,
From earliest generations, there absorbed,
Were gathering for the wrath-flame. Shade was none
In those portentous vaults;
Crag overhanging, nor the column-rock
Cast its dark outline there,
For with the hot and heavy atmosphere
The light incorporate, permeating all,
Spread over all its equal yellowness.
There was no motion in the lifeless air,

He

He felt no stirring as he past
Adown the long descent.
He heard not his own footsteps on the rock
That thro' the thick stagnation sent no sound.
How sweet it were, he thought,
To feel the flowing wind!
With what a thirst of joy
He should breathe in the open gales of heaven!'

At the end of a long descent, he finds a car suspended over a dark abyss; and, after having freed a man bound with fiery fetters on the brink, he leaps boldly in, and sinks down an unfathomable depth. He then discomfits a dæmon that guarded the threshold of the rocky doors; and

'Sprung and smote the stony doors,
And bade them in the name of God give way.
The dying Fiend beneath him at that name
Tossed in worse agony,
And the rocks shuddered, and the rocky doors
Rent at the voice asunder. Lo—within—
The Teraph and the fire,
And Khawla, and in mail complete
Mohareb for the strife.
But Thalaba with numbing force
Smites his raised arm, and rushes by,
For now he sees the fire amid whose flames
On the white ashes of Hodeirah lies
Hodeirah's holy Sword.
He rushes to the fire,
Then Khawla met the youth
And leapt upon him, and with clinging arms
Clasps him, and calls Mohareb now to aim
The effectual vengeance. O fool! fool! he sees
His father's Sword, and who shall bar his way?
Who stand against the fury of that arm
That spurns her to the earth?'

Then all the sorcerer breed fly before him to the inner cave, where the god of their idolatry was placed,—a gigantic statue, holding a sceptre in one hand:

'His other arm was raised, and its spread palm
Up bore the ocean-weight
Whose naked waters arched the sanctuary,
Sole prop and pillar he.'

The Destroyer then forgives and offers up a prayer for the father of Laila, and is desired by a voice from heaven to ask a boon for himself:

"Prophet of God!" then answered Thalaba,
"I am alone on earth.

Thou

Thou knowest the secret wishes of my heart!
Do with me as thou wilt! thy will is best."
'There issued forth no Voice to answer him,
But lo! Hodeirah's Spirit comes to see
His vengeance, and beside him, a pure form
Of roseate light, the Angel mother hangs.
"My Child, my dear, my glorious, blessed Child,
My promise is performed—fulfil thy work!"
Thalaba knew that his death hour was come,
And on he leapt, and springing up,
Into the Idol's heart
Hilt-deep he drove the Sword.
The Ocean-Vault fell in, and all were crushed.
In the same moment at the gate
Of Paradise, Oneiza's Houri-form
Welcomed her Husband to eternal bliss.'

After the numerous extracts which we have now made from this publication, it would be improper todetain our readers with many additional remarks on its merits.—That it contains poetical beauties of the first order, we conceive to be sufficiently proved by some of the quotations which we have already exhibited; and though these may be considered as favourable specimens of the whole work, yet this is an advantage which will scarcely compensate for the deterioration which they must have suffered by being detached from the body of the poem. That there are faults in the composition, however, and some of them very glaring, the same specimens will testify; and there are others which are more apparent on a consideration of the whole work.

The poem is deficient not only in probability, but in connection and consistency of fiction. The death of every new sorcerer is the end of an entire fable and course of action; and there is no more connection nor dependency of parts in the different enterprizes of the Destroyer, than in the seven voyages of Sinbad the sailor. We find no discrimination of character, nor any extended delineation of human actions; we are conversant throughout with nothing but witches and dæmons; and we become so secure of supernatural assistance to the hero, that we cease to take any great concern in his dangers.—We cannot help disapproving, also, the uniform gloominess and melancholy which overcast the whole poem. It begins with assassination, and ends with a general destruction. Every individual to whom we are introduced is miserable, and the innocent and the guilty partake one common lot of wretchedness.—As the fictions are by far too extravagant to have any relation to human life in general, the disastrous colour of the incidents can scarcely produce any of the moral

effects

effects of tragic representation, and seem to be a gratuitous sacrifice to the author's predilection for sorrow. This, we will acknowlege, is a peculiarity of taste for which we have but little indulgence; in works of mere imagination, there should be something to please as well as to affect; and a delineation of fancied afflictions is apt to fatigue those who have had any experience of the reality.

The faults of the versification (if versification it can always be called) are very glaring and numerous; and there is a degree of presumption which we are not much inclined to pardon, in the language which Mr. S. employs in recommendation of his mongrel metre. It is now too late, we apprehend, to introduce a new style of versification into the English language; and the measures which were found adequate to the varieties of Shakspeare and Milton ought to satisfy the most ambitious of their successors.—Throughout the poem, also, the author has interspersed too much description; and the notes, though sometimes curious and amusing, are too bulky, and contain rather an ostentasious display of the author's assiduity in collecting materials for his undertaking.

On the whole, we conceive that this work contains more ample and decisive proofs of the author's genius and capacity for poetical impressions, than any of his former publications: but at the same time, we are sorry to observe that it affords no indications of his advancement towards a more correct taste or a more manly style of composition. Together with much that must please readers of every description, it contains not a little that will offend those whose suffrages Mr. Southey should be most ambitious of securing.

Jeff.

Art. III. *The History of England*, from the Accession of King George the Third, to the Conclusion of Peace in the Year 1783. By John Adolphus, Esq. F. S. A. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

THE author of these volumes is not unknown to the public, having had more than one opportunity of introducing himself to their acquaintance *. In the undertaking in which he is now engaged, his task must be allowed to be particularly delicate; because here he attemps to narrate the events of a recent period, when many of the characters are still moving "on this world's theatre." We may say of such a writer, in the often-quoted language of the great Lyric Poet of Antiquity,

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* Vide M. R. Vols. xxx. and xxxi. N. S.

"*Periculosæ*

" *Periculosæ plenum opus aleæ*
Tractat; et incedit per ignes
Suppositos cineri doloso."

Mr. Adolphus, however, is not the only gentleman who has braved the dangers of this employment, for we have lately had occasion to notice the productions of Dr. Coote and of Mr. Belsham in the same line. From this circumstance, and considering that the transactions here recorded are fresh in the memory of most of our readers, we think that we shall sufficiently discharge our duty on the present occasion, by making a few extracts to shew in what manner the work is executed.

From the preface, in which some indirect censures are bestowed on contemporary historians, the plan which the author has pursued, and the political sentiments which he has adopted, will immediately appear:

' I will not affect to conceal, (says Mr. A.,) that a regard for the constitution of my country, both in Church and State, ever present to my mind, has diffused itself through my work. I have treated that constitution not as a project, but as an establishment, entitled to veneration from every observer, and to support from all those whom birth or accident has made partakers of its blessings. I have not therefore lent my approbation to crude reforms, or to the conduct of individuals, who, for purposes of ambition, have endeavoured to unsettle that which was fixed, and more than once succeeded in exciting the public mind to a dangerous ferment of disaffection. But in that attachment for the constitution, I have not, I trust, betrayed an indecent violence against those whom I considered its assailants; I have endeavoured to assign to them and to their opponents, indeed to every man, whether exalted or obscure, illustrious from merit, or degraded by crime, his real motives, and true course of conduct.

' I have never been able, nor has the course of my reading given me the inclination, to coincide with those authors or orators, who are pleased to inveigh, with almost indiscriminate severity, against the foreign and domestic government of Great Britain. These highly seasoned invectives may be gratifying to some readers; and to them the more plain, tranquil narrative of undisguised fact may seem insipid: but reputation derived from such sources has never been the object of my desire; I confine myself with strict forbearance to the paths where I expect to find certain truth, and do not, in order to be thought courageous, attack, where I am sure not to be encountered, nor calumniate those whom station, circumstances, time, or death, render undesirous or incapable of resentment. Far from envying the applauses obtained by those disciples of Thersites, who claim the merit of wit and courage by rancorous abuse on the sovereign government, and constitution of the country; I can without hesitation declare my opinion, that in the period on which I have written, the throne has been filled by a monarch who has sought the love of his subjects through the means of public spirit and private

 virtue;

virtue; and who has tempered a noble desire to preserve from degradation the authority he inherits, with a firm and just regard to the constitution and liberties which conducted him to the throne, and which will ever form its best supports. Far from thinking that the aims of successive administrations have been directed to overthrow the liberties and constitution of the country; I am persuaded that liberty has been better understood, and more effectually and practically promoted during this period, than in any which preceded; and that the affairs of government have been always honestly, though sometimes imprudently, and in the conspicuous instance of the American war unsuccessfully, administered.'

In estimating the character of the Earl of Bute, which has been so variously represented, and in considering the influence which he possessed over his Majesty's mind, we think that Mr. Adolphus has steered equally clear of the two extremes of adulation and prejudice:

'The king's friendship for the earl of Bute, led to extensive and permanent consequences. John earl of Bute, was son of James second earl of Bute, by Ann Campbell, daughter of Archibald first duke of Argyle. He received his education at Eton; and at an early period of his life, was introduced to the household of Frederick prince of Wales, to whom he was lord of the bed-chamber. On the death of the prince he retired to the country, and took no share in political transactions, though he was often consulted by the princess. On the establishment of the young prince's household, he was appointed groom of the stole, in which place he was continued after his accession. He had not occupied any public office; was unacquainted with the business and intrigues of state; and though he possessed an active mind, replete with elegant and abstruse learning, and was well acquainted with the theory of the British constitution *, he was not competent to the task of instructing a young prince in the practical science of governing a kingdom, where the component parts of the legislature are so nicely balanced, and their respective powers and operations so strictly guarded. It could not afford ground of surprize that the king, young and unacquainted with the persons of those who formed a successful and popular administration, should place among his confidential servants, a nobleman whom he had long esteemed, and who possessed the good opinion of his parent in an eminent degree: it could not be a subject of animadversion, that such a person should obtain an ample portion of the king's regard; nor would this circumstance have affected the course of political affairs, had not a new system followed his introduction into the cabinet.

'* The king derived from the conversation of lord Bute, his principal knowledge of the constitution; and lord Bute obtained from Blackstone the most interesting parts of his commentaries on the laws of England while in MS. and laid them before the prince for his instruction.'

'The

'The two last monarchs being foreigners, and opposed by a native prince who had numerous adherents, as well among the people as in some of the most illustrious houses, confided a large portion of their power to a few distinguished families, in order to secure possession of the crown. These families, strengthened by union, and exclusive influence, became not only independent of, but, in many respects, superior to the throne. Swayed by a predilection for their continental dominions, the two first sovereigns of the house of Hanover incurred severe animadversions from the members of opposition. The necessity of frequent justifications, rendered them still more dependent on the leaders of the ministerial party, and reduced them almost to a state of pupilage.

'But the new king being exempt from foreign partialities, ascending the throne at a period when the claims of the exiled family were fallen into contempt, was enabled to emancipate himself from the restraint to which his ancestors had submitted. The earl of Bute formed the plan of breaking the phalanx which constituted and supported the ministry, and of securing the independence of the crown, by a moderate exertion of the constitutional prerogative. This plan in itself was well conceived, and necessary; but the earl of Bute was not a proper person to carry it into effect. He was not connected, either by blood or by familiar intercourse, with the leading families in England: he was not versed in the arts of popularity, or used to the struggles of parliamentary opposition; and his manners were cold, reserved, and unconciliating. Prejudices were easily excited against him as a native of Scotland, and he could only oppose a popular and triumphant administration, and a long established system, by such friends as hope or interest might supply, and by the personal esteem of the king, which was rendered less valuable from the odium attached to the name of favourite.'

In speaking of the resignation of this nobleman in the year 1763, which had been attributed to the invectives contained in "The North Briton," and in order to remove all idea of *secret influence* after his resignation, the author observes:

'In fact, the principal cause of his resignation was the want of support in the cabinet. In a private letter to one of his friends, before he retired from the helm, he more fully explained the real motives of his conduct: "Single," he said, "in a cabinet of my own forming; no aid in the house of lords to support me, except two peers (lords Denbigh and Pomfret); both the secretaries of state silent, and the lord chief justice, whom I myself brought into office, voting for me, yet speaking against me; the ground I tread upon is so hollow, that I am afraid, not only of falling myself, but of involving my royal master in my ruin.—It is time for me to retire!"

'The continuance of the ex-minister's secret influence in the closet, *for a considerable period*, has been so repeatedly and confidently asserted, that to doubt it would seem rashness; yet, perhaps, if we except the negotiations for the ministerial changes soon after his resignation, in which he was occasionally the medium to communicate the king's intentions, no report was ever less consonant to truth: for

It was his constant and repeated complaint to his intimate friends, both in his travels and at home, that he was neglected by his sovereign. This avowal from a man so cautious as lord Bute, outweighs all the vague assertions of those who maintained the existence of a mysterious agency, and proves that the loss of his influence had sunk deep in his mind.

'Lord Bute's short administration was rendered additionally unpleasant by his own errors. His undertaking to make peace when the nation was eager for continuing the war; and his offending all those who, by popularity or family connection, were enabled to cooperate effectually in his views; were rash though laudable exertions: and his danger was augmented by his negligence of public applause, and ignorance of the means by which it might be acquired. He was advised to contemn the clamors of the city, for on the least threat of the king's displeasure, those who were then at his throat, would soon be at his feet; and though he neither esteemed nor respected the man who gave this counsel, the tenor of it seems agreeable to his mode of thinking: the consequence was, that the city connected with the admiration of Mr. Pitt, a factious and overbearing spirit of resistance to the exertions of government. Even the virtues of lord Bute were not calculated to insure respect, or conciliate affection. It is said of him, "No man could complain, during his administration, of a promise broken, or of hopes given and not fulfilled. No inferior person in any department where he had served, who did not passionately regret the loss of so easy, so kind a superior." In diminution of this eulogium, it is to be remarked that lord Bute made no promises, and gave no hopes, except to persons whose devotion he meant to secure; and that under him the pernicious precedent was introduced, of removing every dependent of government, even to the lowest clerks in the public offices, to introduce others of his own nomination. This proceeding necessarily created many enemies, and if it gave him some claims to gratitude, those claims were too slight and precariously founded to be much relied on. His patronage of literature and the arts, was liberal and honourable: with what judgment it was bestowed, is not the province of history to discuss; but it does not appear open to the imputation of corrupt or sinister motives.'

The account of Mr. Wilkes's conduct at this period, and of the important discussion to which it gave rise, seems to be correct, and is conveyed in animated language. The historian condemns the measures adopted by this political Proteus, whom we have witnessed at one time grossly insulting and at another time servilely flattering his sovereign; a man of whom the late Earl of Chatham observed in the House of Commons, that he "did not deserve to be ranked among the human species, he was the blasphemer of his God, and the libeller of his King."—Respecting general warrants, however, a subject which is so closely connected with the name of Wilkes, the author is decidedly of opinion that the ministry had recourse to an expedient

pedient which was in itself unconstitutional and illegal, and only sanctioned by previous usage.

On the great question of taxing America, a question in which more important consequences have been involved than probably ever before originated in a single cause, Mr. Adolphus expresses his conviction that this right existed in the British Senate. After having given a view of the state of America at this period, he says:

'Such were the people whom Mr. Grenville proposed to subject to taxation, for the purpose of easing the burthens of England. In the first view of this project, it is only necessary to examine its general expediency or impropriety, leaving the various measures originating from it, to be discussed in the periods which produced them.

'The participation which America claimed and enjoyed in the benefits of the Revolution, rendered it merely reasonable that the colonies should contribute towards the discharge of a debt, incurred in support of the government which was to them the source of liberty and prosperity. The last war was undertaken principally on account of America, and a great part of the debt contracted in the preceding war, had originated in the defence of that country. The practice of imposing taxes by authority of Parliament on the Transatlantic dominions was not new; it had been used ever since their establishment; not to an extent sufficient to afford great advantage to the country, yet abundantly sufficient, so far as precedent can be required, to support the right of the mother-country to draw pecuniary relief from her dependencies. The principle at the period of passing the resolutions in parliament was not deemed open to an objection; and it was considered necessary, as well as just, to realize the advantages which had been promised from the colonization and protection of that distant continent.

'In opposition to the rights of Great Britain, thus supported by precedent and every known principle of colonization, certain abstract propositions were assumed, and descanted on with a violence adapted to a cause already secure of partizans, and requiring only a plausible vindication. Among these were the axioms, that in every free state every man is his own legislator; that all taxes are free gifts for public services; and that no one community can have any power over the property or legislation of another community, that is not incorporated with it by a just and adequate representation. Without discussing the abstract truth of these positions, as applied to the independent states, it must be obvious that, with respect to colonies, they can never be founded on general principle, but merely on peculiar and adventitious circumstances. No man can be rash enough to assert, that when the first British emigrants established themselves in Virginia; when their diminutive colony of a hundred, reduced by sickness and the climate to one half of that number, hung with all the weakness and all the solicitude of infancy on the protecting support of the parent land; that then these fifty individuals, stationed in a desert, and occupied chiefly in the pursuit of food, were defrauded

of

of their privileges as British subjects, because no provision was made for their representation in the national councils. When afterwards by numerous emigrations, the colonists had acquired a more respectable establishment; when their charters had given permanence to their possessions, and the force and wisdom of the mother-country were liberally exerted in favouring their prosperity; when, as a title to these benefits, they industriously procured the insertion of a clause in their charters, importing that they were still to be considered as Englishmen; and when, in return for such protection, they submitted to those impositions which, though not profitable to Great Britain, fully established the principle of taxation by parliament; at these periods no one can assert that their rights were invaded, or not duly consulted. But when the mother country, exhausted by a protracted war, looked to its wealthy and flourishing colonies for relief; then these pleas were advanced, which never were, which never could have been before resorted to, and which now could only be justified by the populousness and strength which America had derived from the protection of Great Britain. The same arguments, if true in the abstract, would equally apply to the Isle of Man, to Nevis, or the most diminutive of the colonies; if the application depended merely on force, they would either suppress the spirit of colonization, or indicate so clearly the only means of securing subjection, that it would become a rule of policy to abandon colonists to their fate, with unsolicitous apathy, or to prevent their future independency by damming up the sources of prosperity.

'Such principles had never regulated the practice of the British Government; and the ministry, who thought of imposing a tax on America, could not be expected to foresee the effects which afterwards resulted from the attempt. Crown lawyers could only reason from the usage and experience of past ages; the cabinet had no other guide: no warning voice raised itself in the house of commons; but the measure was suffered to pass through in silence, as one of those plans of external regulation, which proceeded rather from the executive than the deliberative power, and where concurrence is given without stedfast examination.

'Whatever cogency may now be ascribed to deductions drawn from isolated propositions, in a case where success is resorted to as the most convincing argument, the right of taxing America seemed at this period so incontestible, that any person who had insinuated the possibility of opposition before the measures were actually adopted, would have been derided as the wildest of speculists. Whether the ministry acted wisely, under all the circumstances of the times, in their attempt to tax the colonies, will be better gathered from the subsequent narrative, and the observations to which it gives rise, than from an accumulation of objections and replies.'

This account has the appearance of being argumentative and dispassionate: but it omits the main point for which the Americans contended. They were willing to *contribute* to the wants of the parent state, but they objected to the *mode* in which that contribution was to be raised and enforced; and which

left them no power of objecting to the imposition of burthens which might be irksome and prejudicial, and no choice of placing them where they might be borne without disgust and without detriment.

As the author's remarks on the regulations against smuggling are moderate and judicious, and as they are intimately connected with the subject of our differences with America, we should have extracted them if we could have made room. Of Dr. Franklin, he thus speaks:

'It was resolved to send Dr. Franklin to England, as agent for America, to exert his talents and influence in defeating the measures complained of. This choice of an agent had great effect on the subsequent transactions of the colonies. Franklin, bred to the trade of a printer, and at an early period of life obliged to rely on himself alone for subsistence and advancement, was rendered cautious, attentive, and circumspect: though his efforts had been rewarded by a competent fortune and the postmastership of America, he did not resign himself to indolence, but still pursued the employments of his younger years with unabated perseverance. An affectionate attachment to literature and natural philosophy, acting upon a bold and ardent genius, rendered him daring and adventurous; but left him all that minute attention and patient calmness, which combine trifling accidents, and little causes, in the promotion and perfection of the greatest designs. His eloquence was simple, but nervous and commanding, and both in speaking and writing abounded with those brief apophthegms, which make a forcible impression on the mind, subjugate the judgment, and are never eradicated from the memory. The projects of Franklin, which in another would have seemed exaggerated and preposterous, were by him so well planned and so industriously pursued, that they never failed to produce the most extensive, and, to all but himself, unexpected results. His fortune, his knowledge, and his great work the American revolution, are convincing and incontrovertible proofs of the immense labours which may be atchieved by the union of genius, judgment, and perseverance.'

It would not be uninteresting to contrast these sentiments in regard to America, with those of Mr. Belsham on the same subject, which we presented to the reader in our 17th volume, N. S. p. 121, &c.—Mr. Adolphus's narrative of transactions in India is perspicuous, and appears to be faithful; and his account of the application made by the Dissenters in the year 1772 for a repeal of the Test Laws, when the bill passed the Lower House, but was thrown out by the Lords, is fair and unprejudiced.—In the appendix to the first volume, are introduced several curious letters between the Earl of Bute and Mr. Dodington (afterward Lord Melcombe), on the resignation of Mr. Pitt in the year 1761. In this correspondence, we meet with the following strong passage, in a letter from Dodington: "I sincerely wish your Lordship joy of being

delivered of a most impracticable colleague, his Majesty of a most imperious servant, and the country of a most dangerous minister. I am told that the people are sullen about it." Such was Lord Melcombe's opinion of Mr. Pitt at that time.—A letter to that nobleman from Lord Bute, in answer to one of reproach on the refusal of a request, contains these words:

'In short, my lord, though I cannot prevent umbrage being taken at my not satisfying every wish, I shall certainly hinder any reasonable ground of complaint concerning things I have once promised. I own, and without blushing, I have been very unfortunate in the means I have for years taken, of cementing friendships and procuring attachments. Others with much less trouble, perhaps without my sincerity, succeed better; but I repine not; conscious of my own feelings, conscious of deserving better treatment, I shall go on, though single and alone, to serve my king and country in the best manner my poor talents will allow me; happy, too happy, when the heavy burden that I bear shall be removed, and placed on other shoulders.'

The whole detail of the transactions in America, and the account of the disgraceful riots in the year 1780, are correctly and impartially given. The author terminates his view of the events of Lord North's administration with the following short character of that Nobleman:

'Such was the close of the first permanent administration formed during the reign of George III. From the prime minister the acts of government took their character, and in speaking of him, his most inveterate opponents never accused his warmest friends of exaggeration. Of his character and attainments when he was raised to the office of chancellor of the exchequer, mention has already been made, and what remains for history to record has been in a great degree anticipated. His eloquence was less distinguished by peculiar splendour of diction, than by suavity, perspicuity, and arrangement. The impression of his harangues was aided by an extraordinary degree of candour, and ingenuous confidence, which were known to be unassumed, and convinced the hearers of the purity of his motives, even though they did not assent to the propriety of his measures. His temper was seldom ruffled, and though reiterated attacks sometimes extorted a sarcastic sally, his wit, of which he possessed an uncommon fecundity, never left on the minds, even of those whom he overwhelmed with ridicule, a sentiment of rancour. His honour was unblemished, his integrity unquestionable; and "in a long and stormy, and, at length, an unfortunate administration, he had many political opponents, almost without a personal enemy." These estimable qualities were supposed to be counterbalanced by too great a facility in adopting the suggestions of others; and the absence of that strictness or severity which is often necessary to enforce and insure exertion, gave the appearance of procrastination, and a want of energy seemed to pervade the other departments of administration.'

We shall conclude our extracts with an interesting anecdote, which the author gives on the authority of 'private information:'

'Every advantage might be expected from the national honour, and from the personal character of the sovereign, whose love of peace could only be suspended by the pursuit of honour and of justice. When he had reluctantly adopted the resolution, which proved the means of ending the war, it became a part of his system; and the same upright firmness of mind, which made him unwilling to receive terms of peace, attended with a dismemberment of his hereditary dominions, rendered him strenuous in adhering to them, when imposed by necessity, and the voice of his people. His majesty's views on this subject were clearly and nobly explained, when Mr. Adams, as envoy from the United States of America, obtained his first audience. The king declared, he anticipated the interview as the most critical moment of his life; but he received the new minister with gracious affability. "I was the last man in the kingdom, Sir," he said, "to consent to the independence of America; but now it is granted, I shall be the last man in the world to sanction a violation of it." This noble and dignified sentiment, joined with the general deportment of the king, formed such a refutation of the calumnies against him, by which revolt had been rendered popular, that Mr. Adams retired agitated and affected in the highest degree; he expressed, before he quitted the palace, his sense of the king's gracious demeanour, and always retained a strong attachment to his person and character.'

Our readers will perceive that these volumes are composed in a spirit of candour and moderation; that they are written with perspicuity, though not highly distinguished by an animated and elegant style; and that the author appears to have taken considerable and successful pains in collecting his materials. The work is ornamented with well-engraved portraits of his Majesty, Lord Bute, the Right Honourable Charles Townshend, the Right Honourable George Grenville, Lord North, and the Marquis of Rockingham.

S. R.

ART. IV. *Mr.* Campbell's *Journey from Edinburgh through Parts of North Britain.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 202. *of the last Review.*]

HAVING already accompanied this writer in some of the most romantic and picturesque parts of his tour, we shall now attend him through the remainder of it to the Scotish metropolis; with a long and desultory account of which city, he concludes his work. We have before intimated to the reader, and our extracts must have confirmed our report, that he must not expect to find much original matter in these

volumes. Mr. Campbell, indeed, copies from every quarter; and if he does not always select with perfect judgment, he forces writers of almost every description to pay contribution with no sparing hand. The narrators of ecclesiastical and civil affairs, authors of statistical accounts, writers on the subjects of painting and music, biographers and dictionary-compilers, &c. &c. are all pressed into his service, and are with some ingenuity made to contribute to his advantage.

In proceeding from Callander, the author introduces us to the grand and sublime scenery of the Pass of Leney, the wilds of Benlaurs, Taymouth, Glenlion, Ranoch, and the adjacent country; and we follow him with pleasure to Blair Athol and Dunkeld. We shall not detain our readers, however, with any account of these places, beautiful and interesting as they are, because they have recently been made acquainted with their characteristic features by other tourists.—In this part of the work, Mr. Campbell contrasts the present with the antient character of the Highlander; and if he discovers no great talents in the comparison, he certainly betrays some of that irascibility of temper for which the inhabitants of this portion of our island have immemorially been represented as remarkable. The terms in which he speaks of Mr. Pinkerton, with whose opinions on this topic he does not agree, are as inapplicable to that gentleman, as they are unfit to be used by any literary man; from whom delicacy of expression, as well as of sentiment, may with propriety be expected.

From Dunkeld, we pass through Perth, Dundee, and St. Andrew's, to Edinburgh, and are detained on our journey by an account of the conspiracy of Gowrie, the Raid of Ruthven, and a slight draft of the ecclesiastical history of the Archiepiscopal see of St. Andrew's; in which are detailed the assassination of Cardinal Beaton, and that of Archbishop Sharp, whose death was accompanied with circumstances of peculiar horror. None of the mystery attached to the Gowrie conspiracy is removed by the present writer; who contents himself with transcribing from the historians of that period, and with aiming an unmerited sneer at Mr. Pinkerton for the dissertation on this curious subject annexed to Mr. Laing's history of Scotland, in which a plausible theory is suggested to elucidate this very extraordinary affair *.

Our progress is still farther delayed, first at Kirkaldy by a biographical sketch of Dr. Adam Smith, chiefly copied from Professor Stewart's account of that eminent man; and then at

* For an account of this dark transaction, see M. R. vol. xxxv. N. S. p. 276. and vol. xxxvi. p. 125.

Queen's Ferry with a biographical outline of John Law of Lawriston, Comptroller General of the Finances of France, in which nothing new in relation to that remarkable character is discoverable. At length, however, and after many interruptions, (several of which appeared to us unnecessary,) we are suffered to arrive at Edinburgh; where we are sometimes entertained with accounts which are curious, and not unfrequently fatigued with narratives that are uninteresting and dull. The author appears to be absolutely overwhelmed with the variety of materials which press on him for insertion; and it must be allowed that many of the articles, which he has admitted, have conduced more to the size than to the value of his publication.—From this heterogeneous mass, we shall attempt to select those portions which promise to amuse by their novelty, or furnish useful information by their authenticity. With this view, we shall present to our readers the principal part of Mr. Campbell's history of the Scotish stage, as drawn from various authors:

'It is well known, that theatrical entertainments called *Interludes* were common in Scotland so early as the minority of James V.

'Nay, prior to this period, some traces of dramatic exhibitions, as mentioned by writers of authority, are discoverable in Scotland. In the year 1593, when James IV. married Margaret of England, one John Inglish and his company performed at the nuptials of the royal pair; and in 1538, when Mary of Lorraine came to Scotland to espouse our fifth James, "there were at Edinburgh great triumphs, farces, and plays, made unto the Queen's grace."

'The celebrated Scotish poet Sir David Lindsay (the friend and companion of James V.) wrote several dramatic pieces in his vernacular dialect, which were acted at the play-fields of Coupar (in Fife) and of Edinburgh in the open air, "*when weather served.*" But these dramas, consisting chiefly of a strange mixture of obscenity and satire, gave great offence to the monks and friars, as it exposed somewhat grossly their scandalous lives. Of consequence, so barefaced an attack was roughly repelled, and eventually crushed; for, in the month of March 1558-9, a council of the clergy, held in the Blackfriars church, Edinburgh, ordained, that Sir David Lindsay's book containing his poems and plays should be burnt by the hands of the common executioner.

'It appears, however, that soon after the reformed religion obtained in Scotland, dramatic exhibitions revived. On the 17th of January 1568, "a play made by Robert Semple" was enacted at Edinburgh, before the regent Murray and several of the Scotish nobility. In the year 1592 a company of players from England was licensed by James VI. to perform within Edinburgh, which gave great offence to the clergy. An act of *Kirk-session*, prohibiting people from resorting to places of profane amusement, on pain of church censure, was, in November 1599, annulled by an ordinance of royal authority; dramatic exhibitions therefore went on as formerly.

'In

'In the year 1603, *Philotus*, a comedy, was printed at Edinburgh; there is reason to believe it to have been the production of Robert Semple which was exhibited before the regent Murray, as mentioned above. In the same year also was published *Darius*, a tragedy, and in the year following three other tragedies, written by Sir William Alexander of Minstrie, afterwards Earl of Stirling.

'During the national commotions in the reign of Charles I, and the civil wars of Cromwell's usurpation, no traces of theatrical exhibitions are to be found north of the Tweed. Soon after the Restoration, however, when the earl of Rothes was high commissioner of Scotland, on the festival of St John, a play called "Marciano, or the Discovery," by Sir *Thomas Sydserff*, was acted before his grace and his court at Holyrood-house. While the duke of York (afterward James II.) resided at the palace of Holyrood-house, in the years 1679, 80, and 81, a company of comedians attended his royal highness, and performed privately in the Tennis-hall before him and his suite.'—

During the revolution in England and the subsequent rebellions in Scotland, the progress of theatrical entertainments yielded to the more turbulent stream of politics, and little is to be recorded respecting the Scotish stage during this period. The clergy had again opposed with success, in the year 1727, an attempt to restore the 'temples consecrated to the father of lies;' and in 1737, an act was passed, prohibiting stage plays in Scotland. As a taste for literature, however, began to prevail, and as civil commotions subsided, the sons of Thespis again made head against their pious opponents; and in the year 1746, a small theatre was erected in a back area near St. John's Cross, Canongate:

'But the Scotish stage had ever to encounter unpropitious circumstances and untoward events. The Canongate theatre was built partly by private subscription and partly on credit. About the year 1752, Mr. Lee, an actor of that period eminently qualified for conducting theatrical concerns, purchased from the original proprietors the little theatre, Canongate, for 648l. and 100l. per annum during the lives of the lessees. Notwithstanding Lee's abilities both as an actor and manager, his affairs rendered it prudent for certain members of the College of Justice, as well as other persons of property who were bondsmen for him, to have the whole property of the theatre vested in themselves. Accordingly, Lee having failed to make good his engagements, the gentlemen of the long robe knew how to take care of their own interests: the manager was dismissed, and the senators of the College of Justice appointed James Callender, a merchant of Edinburgh, as their agent for conducting the business of the stage.

'About this time a man of a prepossessing figure and address made his appearance on the Edinburgh boards, namely, DIGGES, well known in Dublin as an accomplished actor. Him it was who, at Callender's invitation, came to Edinburgh as acting-manager

when this new arrangement had taken place. Under Digges's manangement, things, for a time, went on smoothly; but his style of living, little consonant to that of a *sturdy beggar*, involved him in pecuniary embarrassments, and forced him to quit Edinburgh rather hastily. Still, however, Mr. Callender continued to act for those concerned in the property of the theatre; and, in conjunction with Mr. Love, a performer of respectability, carried on for some time the management of the Edinburgh stage. At length, tired of the teasing and vexatious business of a theatre, Mr. Callender relinquished his connection with Love; on which occasion David Beat, another citizen of Edinburgh, joined Love, and they exerted themselves to please the town. To Love succeeded John Dawson, of Newcastle.

'Beat and Dawson gave little satisfaction to the public in their mode of management; an instance of which is recorded, little to the credit of either the managers, their company of comedians, or the public, to whom no small portion of blame must attach. "Dissentions arose among the performers, which the managers were unable to allay. Each party had their friends among the public. The gentlemen of the long robe took a deep concern in the quarrel. The students in the university did not remain neutral. In a riot which ensued, the Canongate theatre was totally demolished; and the performers, who had drawn this ruin on themselves, were left in extreme necessity." [Arnot's Hist. of Edinburgh.]

'This disaster proved no less ruinous to the managers and performers than to the proprietors, who found themselves involved in a pecuniary embarrassment, with little hope of being extricated from it with safety and success. An action of damages was brought before the Court of Session against those who were concerned in the riot: this the rioters artfully warded off, by a counter-action against the plaintiffs, founded on their having been concerned in theatrical matters in open defiance of an act of the legislature. "The ludicrousness of the case was perceived, (observes the author above quoted,) and both actions were dropped."

'The theatre was once more fitted up, and from time to time performers of eminence found their account in visiting the Scotish capital. An Edinburgh audience, at the period when the tragedy of DOUGLAS was brought on the stage, had as critics to guide the public taste, a Robertson, a Blair, a Webster, a Carlisle, among the clergy; a Dalrymple, a Burnet, a Home, among the lawyers; besides many among the general mass eminently qualified to take the lead in matters of taste as well as judgment. Hence, the Edinburgh stage was deservedly considered a genial hot-bed for theatrical scions of hopeful promise: and it still retains the same warmth for performers of rising merit, an affectionate indulgence, bordering, it is feared, on good nature, but too often abused by the artful intrigues or parsimonious manœuvres of cunning or niggardly managers.'—

'So far had public opinion altered in favour of stage performances, that in the year 1768 a new playhouse, since dignified by the title of "THEATRE ROYAL," was begun and was opened in December 1769.

1769, under the management of Mr. David Ross, of Covent Garden theatre. This gentleman, having become patentee (by purchase) under the sanction of law, for a short time continued his labour; but with such ill success as greatly to damp the ardour with which he encountered the difficulties of theatrical business. An unforeseen accident too taking place, before the house was completed, considerably lessened his expectations as to the profits of the ensuing season. This accident was no other than the downfall of the North-bridge; by which the direct communication from the city to the theatre was cut off. Moreover, the enemies of stage performances saw the hand of Providence manifest in thus graciously permitting the broad way to the temple of Satan to be suddenly laid in ruins. Happily but few lives were lost when the bridge fell; which circumstance greatly added, in the minds of the pious disciples of Whitfield, (from whose preaching a vast concourse of people had, but a few minutes before the dreadful crash took place, retired to their own homes, most of whom passed by way of the bridge,) to the miraculous interposition of Heaven. Nevertheless, the bridge being rebuilt, and the theatre opened, such is the perverseness of human nature, that even some of the godly themselves were seen to enter the house of the *arch-scorner*; where the sons and daughters of the land partook of entertainments prepared by profane authors, and exhibited by "*vagrants, common-players, vagabonds, and sturdy-beggars.*"

'Ross, having failed in his expectations the first season, let the theatre to FOOTE, who brought down such a company the second opening of the house as insured success; a proof of which is, that Foote, after paying the rent and all contingencies, cleared upwards of a thousand pounds, with which he returned to London, leaving, for a pecuniary consideration, the amount of which is not known, the management and profits arising therefrom in the hands of Messrs. Digges and Bland. Mr. Bland (the uncle of the celebrated Mrs. Jordan, formerly the partner of Ross,) a steady, upright character, continued to manage in conjunction with Digges; and, having obtained from Ross a renewal of their lease, they went on with various success, till Digges was once more obliged to quit Edinburgh, for reasons best known to himself and his creditors.

'Mr. Bland continued as treasurer to the theatre, and acting-manager occasionally, while Signior Dominicio Corri (now music-seller in the Haymarket) and Mr. Wilkinson of York successively held the current lease; till, in the November 1781, Mr. John Jackson purchased the theatre, wardrobe, scenery, &c. from the late patentee Mr. David Ross. Mr. Jackson had the management of the Edinburgh theatre for ten years. To him succeeded Mr. Stephen Kemble; under whose directions it remained till November 1800; when being once more taken by Mr. Jackson, in conjunction with Mr. Aikin of Liverpool, the theatrical entertainments of the Scotish capital were resumed.'

As Edinburgh has been for so many years justly celebrated for its medical school, the following short account of its institution will probably be acceptable:

'Before

'Before the commencement of the eighteenth century, every thing connected with the healing art in the Scotish capital was wretched in the extreme. Barbers and surgeons were one and the same profession, who exclusively practised as a craft the dressing of wounds, shaving of beards, and making and selling of whisky, throughout the *gude* town: at the same time, empirics, natives and foreigners, male and female, ignorant and illiterate, gave advice and prescribed medicine; while what were called the regular practitioners, without knowledge or experience, administered to their patients as chance or whim directed.

'To illustrate this by an appeal to history, we find that, when the surgeons of Edinburgh were, by *Seal of Cause* of the Town-Council in 1505, incorporated under the denominations of *Surgeons and Barbers*, and afterwards by royal charter of confirmation anno 1506, it was required of them to be able to *read and write!* to 'knaw anatomie, nature and complexioun of everie member of humanis bodie; and lykwayes to knaw all the vaynes of the samyn, that he may mak flewlothomea in dew tyme;' together with a perfect knowlege of shaving beards: these were all the qualifications that seemed necessary to the art of surgery at the beginning of the sixteenth century. The practice of physic was, if possible, in a more deplorable state. It should seem, however, that, toward the latter part of the seventeenth century, the profession of physic was in more reputable hands than it had been. In the charter of erection of the present Royal College of Physicians, dated the 29th of November 1681, confirmed by parliament on the 16th of June 1685, the name of the celebrated *Pitcairne* is mentioned, which furnishes one proof of the truth of the preceding remark. The father-in-law of Dr. Pitcairne, Sir Archibald Stevenson, was a physician of eminence then in practice at Edinburgh; and the ingenious Sir Robert Sibbald, the impugnator of Pitcairne's doctrines, was likewise a member of the Royal College of Physicians. Hence it is observable, that towards the close of the seventeenth century something like the beginnings of a medical school appeared in the Scotish capital.

'Pitcairne, who had himself studied at Paris, returned to his native country well skilled in his art as it was then practised on the continent. In 1692 he was called to fill the chair as professor of Medicine in the University of Leyden, where the celebrated *Boerhaave* became his pupil. His stay in Leyden, however, was of but short duration, as in 1693 he returned to Edinburgh, married, and settled, practising as a physician. It does not appear that he gave lectures publicly on any branch of medicine: but he wrote in vindication of the great discovery then recently made by the immortal *Harvey* respecting the true circulation of the blood; which admirable discovery, with justice ascribed to the English philosopher, forms so memorable an era in the history of medicine. The practice of surgery had emerged from that chaos of doubt and error in which, previous to Harvey's discoveries, it had been involved: and Pitcairne himself, who had been invited by the College of Surgeons in Edinburgh to become a member, deemed it an honour, and took his

seat

seat among them. This illustrious physician ceased to adorn his profession and enliven society on the 20th day of October 1713; at which period the surgeon-apothecaries had among them a few promising young men, some of whom laid the foundation of the Edinburgh School of Medicine, which is now one of the most distinguished in Europe. Still, however, from that prejudice against violating their remains so naturally associated in the mind with our lively regret for the dead departed, few opportunities were afforded by dissections of studying the anatomy of the human body; and although two apothecary-surgeons, namely Mr. John M'Gill and Mr. Adam Drummond, had the title of joint Professors of Anatomy to the Surgeons' Company, yet dissections (being usually performed on subjects which had suffered death as criminals, and were only permitted for this purpose) occurring but seldom, afforded but little gratification or instruction to the young student.

'*John Monro*, the youngest son of Sir Alexander Monro, of Bearcroft in Stirlingshire, was educated as a surgeon apothecary at Edinburgh; and having served in King William's army in Flanders as a surgeon, he quitted it three years after his son Alexander, his only child, was born, and returned to Edinburgh, where he remained in extensive practice during the remainder of a useful life. Monro the elder, observing the inclination of the future father of the anatomical department of the Edinburgh School of Medicine, promoted by every means possible the bent of his son's studies. He sent him to London, Paris, and Leyden, to improve himself; and the reward of his paternal solicitude and fond wishes was, the return of an accomplished and enlightened youth of such hopeful promise as gained him the regard of the faculty, many of whom eagerly desired he might open a class for anatomical demonstration. Accordingly, young Monro was prevailed on to commence, privately, a course of anatomy; on delivering the first lecture of which he found himself in the midst, not of a few raw students, but of the whole company of surgeons and apothecaries, together with the fellows of the College of Physicians, having the president at their head. For a moment the youthful demonstrator felt the glow of modest diffidence; the words of his intended discourse seemed to have entirely escaped his recollection; his notes were left at home; and in this dilemma he had recourse to that presence of mind which subsequently distinguished this singular genius. He began to shew the preparations which lay before him: the signs for the things signified arranging themselves in his mind, utterance soon followed; and this experiment answering the purpose so completely, he ever after accustomed himself to extemporaneous delivery. Those who remember his ready, clear, logical, pithy manner of demonstration, speak in high terms of him as a lecturer.

'Our young anatomist having succeeded in his first attempts so much to the satisfaction of every one, the next aim of his father was, to realize a plan which he had formed in his own mind respecting a medical school in the university, to be established on a regular, permanent, and respectable footing; a thing heretofore but imperfectly conducted,

conducted, and ill-directed *. About the year 1720, the father communicated his ideas on this subject to his brethren of the faculty, who, warmly interesting themselves in behalf of the son, prevailed with the Town-Council to appoint *Alexander Monro*, a name ever to be revered, professor of anatomy in the university of Edinburgh. Dr. Alston, who, prior to this period, had been appointed the professor of materia medica and botany, was induced, from the example of so able a colleague, to give a regular course of lectures in his department; and, in the beginning of the winter 1720, Monro opened a class for initiating students in anatomy, physiology, and surgery. Thus we have seen a medical school, from a very humble origin, rise into consequence, and continue to advance daily, by energetic means wisely adapted to render its institution a benefit to the whole world.

'Soon after Monro and Alston began to teach regularly, other branches of medical science were filled with able professors. Dr. Sinclair delivered lectures on the theory of medicine; Dr. Rutherford, on the practice; Dr. Plumber, on chemistry; Dr. Alston, on materia medica and botany; and Dr. Monro, on anatomy; &c. About this time the Medical Society of Edinburgh was instituted; and near the same period the Royal Infirmary was opened for the reception of patients. The medical school being thus fully established, and the several departments supplied with able professors, they and their successors in office contributed, and still continue to contribute largely, toward the accumulated body of medical science, so powerful in its progress at the commencement of the nineteenth century. It is worthy of remark, and it may not be uninteresting to know, that several of the chairs of the medical departments have been filled with the descendants of the founders of our school of medicine and their immediate successors; among these is the present Dr. Alexander Monro senior, who succeeded his father in the year 1760, and who, like his venerable father, after forty years' labours in the anatomical theatre, relinquished the severer duty in favour of his eldest son Dr. Alexander Monro junior, now joint professor of anatomy, physic, and surgery, in the university of Edinburgh †.

'What greatly contributed to raise and establish the fame of the medical school of Edinburgh was, the chairs being filled by some of the greatest improvers of the healing art in modern times; among whom may be mentioned Cullen, Black, and Gregory; names that will remain as immortal as the science itself, which they laboured to free from that mass of unintelligible matter under which it lay buried for ages.'

'* Before the year 1720, there was no public teacher of physic in the university of Edinburgh, except, indeed, that in winter Dr. Crawford gave a superficial course of chemistry, and in summer Dr. Preston gave a slight sketch of botanical lectures on a few officinal plants.'

'† No less than five of our present professors in the medical departments have succeeded to chairs in which their fathers flourished, viz. Drs. Gregory, Hope, Home, Hamilton, and Monro.'

With

With the account of the progress and present state of the fine arts of painting and engraving at Edinburgh, though not distinguished by much new information, we were pleased, because it displayed a judicious use of old materials; and the description of Roslin Castle, with that of Hawthornden, the seat of the Poet Drummond, appeared to us to be accurate and interesting.

In delivering our unbiassed sentiments concerning this publication, we have been obliged to speak less favourably of it in some respects than its partial author would probably have anticipated: but the same regard to justice induces us to remind the reader that, notwithstanding the objections which we have pointed out, these volumes may be truly said to afford a considerable share of entertainment and information.

The engravings which embellish this work, (44 in number,) and which are all made from drawings by the author, are in general eminently beautiful, and reflect great credit on the taste and genius of the artists.

S. R.

ART. V. *Transactions of the Linnean Society*, Vol. VI. 4to. pp. 400. 2l. 2s. Boards. White. 1802.

THE growing merit and importance of these volumes would frequently invite us to trains of curious investigation, did not the plan of our work necessarily preclude minute discussions of detached memoirs. To avoid repetition, we have also to observe that scientific catalogues and descriptions, illustrated by plates, are not susceptible of abridgment or intelligible analysis; and hence, in these cases, we can do little more than briefly indicate the nature of the several papers.

The first article in the present volume is intitled

'A Dissertation on two Natural Genera hitherto confounded under the Name of Mantis. By Anthony Augustus Henry Lichtenstein, D.D. F.M.L.S. Translated from the German by Thomas Young, M.D. F.R.S. and L.S.'

In the course of this essay, which manifests much diligence of research, the author presents us with the distinctive characters of *mantis* and *phasma*, an enlarged description of neglected species appertaining to either genus, and a short enumeration of others, whose rank in the classification must remain doubtful, till ascertained by more accurate examination. Particular attention is bestowed on the adjustment of the synonyms; and plates are annexed, representing *mantis filum*, *phasma filiforme*, —*hecticum*, and—*Ohrtmanni*.

'The

'The Botanical History of the Genus Ehrharta. By Olof Swartz, M.D. F.M.L.S.'

This is the most complete account which we have perused of the genus in question, not fewer than nine sorts being specifically defined. As *mnematea* and *bulbosa* have both bulbous roots, the latter epithet should no longer be retained in the nomenclature. These two species, however, possess so many differential characters, that we are surprised that Lamarck should have confounded them.

'Account of a Microscopical Investigation of several Species of Pollen, with Remarks and Questions on the Structure and Use of that Part of Vegetables. By Luke Howard, Esq. of Plaistow in Essex.'

The plants of which the pollen was subjected to experiment were *corylus avellana*, *erica carnea*, *reseda odorata*, *cactus flagelliformis*, and *carex acuta*.—Has the author overlooked the extreme irritability of the greenish powder of *equisetum arvense?*

Though a few experiments, and those incident to fallacy, can never warrant general conclusions, we trust that some zealous and accurate observers will prosecute the curious inquiries suggested by Mr. Howard. The rapid evolutions of the organic particles of pollen in alcohol, their more sluggish motions in the liquor of the pistil and a solution of sugar, the distention of their absorbent vessels in water, and their identity with fæculum or starch, if once completely established, may serve to unfold part, at least, of the mystery of vegetable reproduction.

'Observations on Aphides, chiefly intended to show that they are the principal Cause of Blights in Plants, and the sole Cause of the Honey-Dew. By the late Mr. William Curtis, F.L.S.'

According to Mr. Curtis, the aphides subsist entirely on vegetable food, and greatly multiply in consequence of a mild winter, but are usually kept in check by *coccinella ichneumon aphidum*, and *musca aphidivora*, their declared enemies.—In the year 1793 they were the chief, and in 1798 the sole cause of the failure of hops.—They are capable of resisting immersion in water for hours together, but quickly perish in the smoke of tobacco. They part with an excrementitious saccharine matter, which, when collected into quantities, forms the *honey-dew*, and gives plants the sooty appearance commonly called *blight*.—The latter assertion, however, is not so clearly established as the former; and both should be received with due regard to the vague import of popular terms. *Honey-dew*, for example, is also applied to natural exudations; and diseased

eased symptoms, known by the name of *blight*, may be induced, as we formerly hinted *, by sudden changes in the state of the atmosphere.

'Remarks on the Genera of Pæderota, Wulfenia, and Hemimeris. By James Edward Smith, M.D F.R.S. P.L.S.'

A short but distinct correction of some blunders in nomenclature.

'An Illustration of the Genus Solandra. By Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. F.R.S. and L.S.'

The principal merit of this article consists in a scientific description of *Solandra glandiflora*; with a suitable plate.

'Observations on some remarkable Strata of Flint in a Chalk-pit in the Isle of Wight, in a Letter from Sir Henry Charles Englefield, Bart. F.R.S. to John Latham, M.D. F.R.S. and L.S.'

The bruised and shattered appearance of the flints included in the chalk is thus explained:

'There can be very little doubt that the strata, though now so inclined, were originally formed in a horizontal position. When the tremendous convulsion took place which sunk them to the situation in which they now appear (at which time the channel which separates the Isle of Wight from the main land was perhaps formed), the strata of chalk, in the act of subsidence, had a tendency to slide on each other, and this would be exerted most sensibly where from the admixture of the flints the cohesion of the parts of the chalk was the weakest. This motion, or rather strain, of so enormous a weight, might in an instant shiver the flints, though their resistance stopped the incipient motion; for the flints, though crushed to powder, are not displaced, which must have been the case had the beds slid sensibly.'

'Remarks on some British Species of Salix. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.'

A careful retrospect of the botanical history of *Salix* has more than once excited suspicion of the permanency of certain characters, which have been assumed as specific; and it has even suggested the idea that the whole family is subject to casual or hybridal varieties. We regard, however, the paper under notice as a precious pledge of *better things to come*, and look forwards with fond expectation to a distinct elucidation of our native willows, in the next volume of the *Flora Britannica*. Dr. Smith's present remarks are limited to the arborescent sorts of the first section of the genus, and comprehend very accurate descriptions of *Salix purpurea*,—*helix*,—*fissa*,—*rubra*,—*Croweana*,—*triandra*,—*amygdalina*,—*pentandra*,—*nigricans*,—*aurina*,—*petiolaris*,—and *phylicifolia*.

* See Rev. N. S. vol. xxxviii. p. 373.

The

The consideration of *vitellina*, *fragilis*, and one or two new species presented by the Rev. Mr. Abbot of Bedford, is postponed, till farther information has been obtained concerning them.

'Descriptions of four new Species of Fucus. By Dawson Turner, M.A. F.L.S.'

These species are denominated—*ruscifolius*,—*crenulatus*,—*clavellosus*, and—*Wigghii*. Pertinent remarks and neat engravings accompany the respective Latin descriptions.

'Description of Callicocca Ipecacuanha. By Felix Avellar Brotero, Professor of Botany in the University of Coimbra, F.M.L.S.'

As many confused and erroneous notions long prevailed with respect to the nature and structure of this plant, the public are under real obligations to Professor Brotero, for his minute and technical communication.

'Observations on the Curculio Trifolii, or Clover Weevil, a small Insect which infests the Heads of the cultivated Clover, and destroys the Seed. In a Letter to Thomas Marsham, Esq. Tr. L.S. by William Markwick, Esq. F.L.S. With additional Remarks by Mr. Marsham.'

'Further Observations on the Curculio Trifolii. In a Letter to William Markwick, Esq. F.L.S. by Martin Christian Gottlieb Lehmann, M.A. of Gottingen.'

These papers make us acquainted with the habits of a destructive insect, but prescribe no means of preventing its ravages. As the weevil tribes are extremely averse to disturbance, may they not be dislodged by frequent and smart agitations of the plants?

'Description of Brotera Persica and Mustelia Eupatoria, two new Plants cultivated in the Botanic Garden of Halle, by Curt Sprengel, M.D. Professor of Botany in the University of Halle.'

The generic and specific characters are here exhibited, and exemplified by plates.

'Observations on the Hinges of British Bivalve Shells. By Mr. William Wood, F.L.S.'

A valuable addition to our stock of British conchology, but not reducible to an abstract.

'Catalogue of the more rare Plants found in the Environs of Dover, with occasional Remarks. By Mr. Lewis Weston Dillwyn, F.L.S.'

Similar lists, prepared by skilful botanists, in their several districts, would greatly contribute to advance their favourite science. The habitations of most of our rare plants might thus

thus be speedily ascertained, and the plants themselves visited, or procured without loss of time.

'Descriptions of some singular Coleopterous insects. By Charles Schreibers, M.D., Deputy Professor of Natural History in the University of Vienna.'

Full and elaborate Latin descriptions of *Lucanus æneus*, *Scarabæus proboscideus*, *dytiscoides*, *Cetonia Philipsii*, *Silpha lacrymosa*, *Clerus fasciculatus*, *Prionus lepidopterus*, *Cerambix Giraffa*, *Fichtelii*, and *Scarites Schrætteri*,—with a coloured engraving of each.

'Description of Menura superba, a Bird of New South Wales. By Major-General Thomas Davies, F.R.S. and L.S.'

General D. has successfully employed his pen and pencil in the delineation of this singular and beautiful bird, but has hitherto obtained no particular notices of its food and manners.

'On the Doryanthes, a new Genus of Plants from New Holland, next akin to the Agave. By Joseph Correa de Serra, LL.D. F.R.S. and L.S.'

This short account of *Doryanthes excelsa* will draw the attention of every lover of exotic botany. The characters which Dr. de Serra has recited are sufficient to discriminate it from *Agave*, in which the anthers are incumbent, and from *Fourcræa*, in which the filaments are winged.

'Observations on several Species of the Genus Apis, known by the Name of Humble-bees, and called Bombinatrices by Linnæus. By Mr. P. Huber, of Lausanne in Swisserland.'

This memoir, extending through 84 pages, and penned in French, with all the distinctness and gravity of a veteran observer, is well intitled to our notice on two accounts;—first, it is the production of a young man, in his 19th year, solicitous of aiding and illustrating a father's inquiries; and, secondly, it treats of a race of insects long condemned to neglect, because unprofitable to man, yet as wonderful in their works and ways as the kindred species which we rob at once of their stores and life.

Mr. H.'s systematic details of several kinds of humble-bees, observed near Lausanne, are prefaced by explanations of generic and individual characters; especially of marks distinctive of sex, and assumed from the size, sting, length of the feelers, number of rings, form of the fifth articulation of the hind legs, shape of the mandibles, and length of the trunk. The author also flatters himself that he has discovered a convenient family-character in the relative elongation of the head; and he asserts (rather Irishly) that the head of the common bee is more broad

than long, or, at least, never longer than broad, as is uniformly the case with respect to the humble-bee.—Coloured representations of the originals greatly enhance the value of the specific and sexual descriptions, which are intended as patterns of characteristic delineations in this walk of entomology.

Without adverting to the facts already recorded by Reaumur and others, and without following our young naturalist through a maze of interesting discussion relative to the nature of the wax, and the mode of adapting it to the construction of the cells, we may state our concurrence in his opinion that the wax is no preparation of the pollen of flowers, but results from honey previously swallowed, and subjected to peculiar elaborations within and without the body of the insect. The pollen is reserved for the nourishment of the brood in the maggot state.

In the course of his observations, Mr. H. has likewise ascertained that the female employs her sting in forwarding the extrusion of her eggs, and that she manifests no common share of activity and address in guarding the newly deposited eggs from the attacks of the working part of the family.—It appears, however, that these little animals, as well as statesmen and alarmists, can regulate their conduct by *existing circumstances*. When deprived of the wax requisite for securing the base of a tottering piece of cell-work, they actually contrived to prop it by their own muscular strength, and were observed to relieve one another from very fatiguing attitudes. A partial supply of wax enabled them to raise supports: but, as these gradually dried and gave way, the poor insects had again recourse to the same straining expedients. *I then took pity on them*, says the writer, *and fixed the comb to the table.*—On another occasion, we find them busied in converting coarse linen, which was accidentally placed within their reach, into a very nice covering for their lodging.

We must now, however, take leave of Mr. H. and his humming companions: but we shall be happy to pay them our respects as often as circumstances will permit.

'Botanical Characters of four New-Holland Plants, of the Natural Order of Myrti. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.'

A paper supplementary to one on the same subject which was published in the third volume of the Society's Transactions. The present addition consists of *Leptospermum grandifolium*, *L. imbricatum*, *Melaleuca squarrosa*, and *Eucalyptus marginata*.

'Additional Observations on some remarkable Strata of Flint in the Isle of Wight, in a Letter from Sir Henry Charles Englefield,

field, Bart. F.R.S. to John Latham, M.D. F.R.S. and L.S. of Romsey.'

Remarks chiefly topographical, in addition to article VII.

'Description of a new Species of Viola. By Thomas Furly Forster, Esq. F.L.S.'

This is the American *viola concolor*, which seldom flowers in our gardens.—Mr. F. intimates his intention of communicating to the public the result of a very sedulous study of the genus *viola*.

'Description of the Fruit of Cycas revoluta. By James Edward Smith, M.D. F.R.S. P.L.S.'

The coloured engraving of this singular and splendid plant is taken from an excellent drawing by Miss North, daughter of the Bishop of Winchester. It is superfluous to add that the description is from the pen of a master.

'Species of Erica. By Richard Anthony Salisbury, Esq. F.R.S. and L.S.'

About 250 sorts of heath are here enumerated, and accurately defined. *E. vulgaris* is excluded from the list, on account of the peculiar structure of the valves of the pericarp. Mr. S. designs it *Calluna*.

The following short notices, composing the concluding article, will probably be acceptable to many of our readers.

'Extracts from the Minute Book of the Linnean Society.

'*April* 7, 1801.—An account was laid before the Society, from Dr. Macculloch, F.L.S. of an artifice used by the *Cancer Phalangium* to ensnare its prey. This contrivance consists in the insect dressing itself up, as it were, in fragments of a *Fucus* (the narrow-leaved variety of Hudson's *ciliatus*), which it seems to cut off, and to attach to the long hairs of its body and legs by means of a glutinous substance. It thus imitates a perfect plant of that *Fucus* so accurately as to have deceived Dr. Macculloch.

'*Oct.* 6.—L. W. Dillwyn, Esq. F.L.S. sent information of his having discovered the *Sysimbrium murale* of Linnæus (a plant not hitherto noticed as British growth) growing wild abundantly on the pier at Ramsgate and other places thereabouts. He believes it to be rather common throughout the isle of Thanet.

'*Dec.* 1.—A letter from Dr. Walter Wade, of Dublin, A.L.S. to the President, mentions his having found the *Eriocaulon Septangulare*, *Engl. Bot. v.* 11. *t.* 733, in Ireland. It has never before been seen but in the Isle of Skye. Dr. Wade observed it last September, decorating the edges of all the lakes, great and small, in the romantic mountainous district of Cunnamara, in the county of Galway. He remarked the number of angles in the stem to vary from 6 to 10, though most frequently 7, and the generic and specific character accorded with those given in *Engl. Bot.*

'*Dec.* 15.—Information was given that the late Dr. Pulteney, F.R.S. and L.S. had ordered his very valuable Musæum of Natural History to be presented to the Society, on condition of its being preserved as a separate collection, in his name; and that he had also bequeathed to the Society the sum of two hundred pounds stock, in the three per cent. consolidated annuities.'

A continuation of the Lists of the Society's Library, and of Contributors to it, terminates the volume.

Muir.

ART. VI. *The Costume of Turkey*, illustrated by a Series of Engravings; with Descriptions in English and French. Imperial 4to. 8l. 8s. Boards. Miller. 1802.

TRUTH of representation is a matter of the first importance in all works which profess to convey instruction. The artist who undertakes to give ideas of the dress and manners of a people, by delineations of the pencil, is as strictly required to be faithful, as the historian or traveller who attempts to describe with his pen. Indeed, inaccuracy in the former is less excusable than in the latter, since the painter is required only to copy fairly that which is before him. When accounts or pictures of the inhabitants of foreign countries are exhibited, almost the first question generally proposed is, what is the degree of credit to be attached to them? Hence it is of importance to afford the public some satisfaction on this head; to which the editor of the volume before us has not been altogether inattentive. *The Costume of China*, published in 1800, and noticed in M. R. vol. xxxiii. p. 354, N. S., was given on the authority of Major Mason, who had been a short time in China, and who assured the public that the plates were taken from correct drawings made by Chinese artists. In 1801, a kind of continuation or supplement to that work was published, (see M. R. vol. xxxv. p. 24, N. S.) intitled *the Punishments of China:* but the authority by which these exhibitions were sanctioned was not particularly specified. This splendid volume *on the Costume of Turkey* is introduced by a preface; in which it is observed by the editor that

'The work has the merit of being both interesting and valuable as to its objects: and that these objects are, to delineate with fidelity the various modes of dress and peculiarity of customs now existing among this singular nation and its various dependencies, and to accompany such portraits with appropriate and accurate descriptions. With respect to the latter division, much is not to be expected from the very narrow limits, to which it was necessary to confine the descriptive part of this work.'

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Here we must remark that the descriptive part is not in general carried to the short length to which even the narrow limits of the plan confined it, and that in course there is much waste of beautiful paper, which might have been filled to advantage. The apology for the extreme brevity of some of the descriptions is scarcely admissible; 'It was impossible to enter more into detail without writing a volume instead of a page.' Where there was so much matter, a full page might easily have been furnished. We are informed, however, that the editor does not place the merit of the work in the explanations, but 'in the accuracy and beauty of the drawings, and the truth of the colouring; and that for other inquiries we must have recourse to the laborious and curious researches of D'Ohsson, D'Herbelot, Dallaway, Olivier, Tott, Montague, Tournefort, and various other writers: from which sources, and from the MS. notices of Monsr. Dalvimart, the present descriptions have been drawn up.' This M. Dalvimart is stated to be the original author of the designs here engraven: but no particular history of him is given, by which we might judge of the opportunities which he enjoyed for executing such a work to general satisfaction. We are only told that 'the drawings were made *on the spot*, about four years ago, by Monsieur Dalvimart, and may be depended on for their correctness.'

Such is the evidence: we could have wished that it had been more full and circumstantial; for, though we would not be supposed to doubt the honour of the editor and publisher, we may be allowed, as counsel for the public on these occasions, to remark that, when eight guineas are demanded for one volume in quarto, the most ample testimony ought to be afforded respecting the situation, character, and respectability of the author, or original delineator.

The volume consists of sixty beautifully coloured plates, on the following subjects.

1. The Kislar Aga, or first black Eunuch of the Seraglio.
2. A Sultana, or Odalisk.
3. Officers of the Grand Signior.
4. A Turkish woman in a provincial dress.
5. Ladle-Bearer to the Janissaries.
6. The Chief of the Ulemas.
7. A Musician.
8. A Domestic belonging to the Grand Vizier.
9. A Turk in his Chall or Shawl.
10. A Page of the Grand Signior.
11. First Dragoman, or Interpreter.
12. The Mufti, or Chief of Religion.
13. A Greek Woman of the Island of Marmora.
14. Turban-bearer to the Grand Signior.
15. A Jew.

16. A Turkish Woman of Constantinople.
17. A Hamal, or Common Porter.
18. A Subaltern Officer of the Janissaries.
19. A Woman of the Island of Andros.
20. A Saka, or Turkish Water-Carrier.
21. An Albanian.
22. A Female Egyptian Arab.
23. An Inhabitant of the Coast of Syria.
24. A Dervise.
25. A Turk in a Pelise.
26. A Bedouin Arab.
27. A Female Bedouin with her Child.
28. An Officer of the Janissaries.
29. A Female Dancer of Constantinople.
30. A Dervise of Syria.
31. A Tartar.
32. An Armenian.
33. A young Prince, heir to the Throne.
34. Two Janissaries in their dress of ceremony.
35. Capidji Bachi, private officer of the Grand Signior.
36. An Usher
37. A Female of the isle of Naxos.
38. Private Secretary to the Grand Signior.
39. A Soldier.
40. Reis Effendi.
41. An Inhabitant of the isle of Simia.
42. An inferior officer of the Janissaries.
43. A Spahi, or Cavalry Soldier.
44. A Member of the Divan.
45. Sword-Bearer to the Grand Signior.
46. A Dervise.
47. A Turkish Female of Pera.
48. The Confectioner of the Palace.
49. The Chief Usher to the Grand Signior.
50. An Ichlogan, or Page.
51. A Tchocadar, or Domestic.
52. The Capitan Pacha.
53. An inhabitant of Bosnia.
54. A Sailor.
55. Stool Bearer to the Grand Signior.
55. An Attendant on the Harem of the Grand Signior.
57. A Turkish Lady in her wedding dress.
58. Bostandji Bachi.
59. The Grand Vizier.
60. A Sultana, or Kaddin.

In such a collection, all the figures cannot be expected to be equally interesting and pleasing. We have pictures of the dress of various officers belonging to the court of the Grand Signior, of the favourite Sultana, and even of that of the heir to the throne; yet we have not, which is indeed a little surprizing, the costume of the most important figure of all, that of *the Grand Signior himself.*

The descriptions, as we have already hinted, are very short, and convey little original information. As specimens, we shall transcribe two or three.

'*Ladle-Bearer to the Janissaries.*—This singular character is a person of greater consequence than his office, if we are to judge from European manners, would lead us to suspect. The sense of honour is not, as with us, attached to the colours; they may lose them without much danger of disgrace; but the loss of their ladle

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and kettle is almost irreparable, and they esteem it as their greatest calamity. In order to avoid this, every odah, or regiment, of which there are an hundred and one, has two of each. When both are taken by an enemy, they consider the regiment as destroyed, and a new one is formed, to whom new ladles and kettles are given. These ladles and kettles are never removed without receiving some military honours. When the ladle-bearer goes round, according to Mons. Dalvimart, to serve out the soup, or messes, he is always attended by a guard.'

Attached as our citizens are to good eating and drinking, they never thought of thus honouring the ladle and kettle; nor of carrying them in procession on Lord Mayor's day.—It is farther added that the Janissaries honour also their wooden spoons, and esteem them as much a part of their military dress as swords are regarded by English or French soldiers.

'*The Mufti, or Chief of Religion.*—In no part of the world have the ministers of religion more power than in Turkey, particularly the higher orders. In the grand Mufti, or Scheik-islam, is combined almost all the supreme power of the law as well as of religion. On all questions of a doubtful nature he is consulted, even by the Sultan himself, who promulgates no law, does not declare war, or levy any tax until it has received the Mufti's sanction; and his decisions are called fetfas. It is the Mufti, who girds on his sabre at his coronation, reminding him at the same time of his duty to promote the welfare of religion. To counterbalance, however, this vast power of the Mufti, which would otherwise be equal to that of the Sultan, the latter is able to depose, banish, or even put the Mufti to death, should he displease him. Hence he is, too frequently, the mere slave of the Sultan. The Muftis in the different parts of the empire are all appointed by the grand Mufti, who resides at Constantinople, and they here act in a double capacity: as expounders of the Koran and law-givers, but they never can be appointed judges, although they form a part of the body of Ulemas.

'The contempt which all the Mussulmen have for persons of a different religion shews itself in the courts of justice, where the evidence of a Jew or a Christian is not often admitted; and when it is, that of one Mussulman has more weight than the positive evidence of ten who profess a contrary religion.'

That we may not be accused of want of politeness to the sex, we shall conclude our extracts with brief descriptions of the *Turkish women of Constantinople*, and of *the Sultana*. Of the former, it is observed that

'The beauty of the Turkish, but more particularly of the Circassian or Georgian women is proverbial; but in most of them it must be confined to the face. From the mode of sitting on their sofas they stoop very much, and walk awkwardly; and the immoderate use of the warm, or even hot, bath, with continued indolence, produces such relaxation as to spoil a form which nature made

equal to their faces. The latter are remarkable for symmetry and complexion. Their nose is Grecian, and their eyes, though generally small, and either black or dark blue, are brilliant and piercing. The custom, too, of drawing a small line above and beneath the eyelash, adds to the effect. They stain the nails both of their fingers and feet of a bright rose colour. Hence probably arose Homer's epithet of Ροδοδακτυλος Εως, "The rosy-fingered morn."

This explanation supposes the practice to be of great antiquity.

'*Sultana, or Odalisk*, is a term by which all the females are distinguished except the few (about seven) who are raised to a superior rank, and are called Kaddins or Kadeuns. When the Sultan dismisses any one of these either from caprice or satiety, which he does by sending her to the old Seraglio, another Odalisk takes her place. This of course is an honour eagerly sought after. One of the reasons, perhaps, of the Sultan's not marrying is, that he thinks himself of a superior rank to other mortals, and that he shall degrade himself by forming any connection of so intimate a nature with what he looks upon as an inferior being.'

When we read such accounts, we congratulate the fair sex of our own country that they are contemplated with more just and liberal sentiments, and are placed by the laws in a more honourable situation.

This series of plates on the Costume of Turkey is executed with particular elegance and brilliancy: but it is no doubt capable of enlargement. We think that, if it were intended to afford perfectly accurate ideas of the dresses of Turkey, it should have been preceded by particular delineations of the several parts which compose them. Especially, figures of the several kinds of Turbans, with the mode of specifying the degrees of honour by tails and other additions, seem to form a necessary part of the plan.

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ART. VII. *A Treatise on the Law of Insurance*, in Four Books; I. Of Marine Insurances. II. Of Bottomry and Respondentia. III. Of Insurance upon Lives. IV. Of Insurance against Fire. By Samuel Marshall, Serjeant at Law. 2 Vols. Royal 8vo. 1l. 8s. Boards. Butterworth. 1802.

THE subject of the present work is of considerable importance, and has of late years experienced that attention and discussion which its consequence to a commercial country demands. We have been called to notice the works of Mr. Millar and Mr. Park; and though their performances merited great praise, yet, in the estimation of the present author, another production on the same subject, embracing topics before unnoticed, was likely to be found useful by the profession.

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'The different branches,' the Serjeant observes, 'of marine insurance so blend themselves with each other, that the forming of any distinct and satisfactory analysis of it, is a task of no inconsiderable difficulty. In the various treatises on this subject which I have had occasion to examine, I have seen no arrangement that I could entirely approve.—Of the arrangement now adopted, the reader will be able to form his own judgment, upon inspection of the following analysis. It will there appear that the subject has been divided, as nearly as it could be, according to the natural order of events, from the first idea of the contract, till the final close of the transactions upon which it is to operate, or which arise out of it.'

In the introductory chapter, much curious and amusing information is given on the subject of marine insurance; which this writer inclines to think was of Italian origin. On the question whether the Romans were acquainted with this species of contract, we find the following observations; which we shall transcribe for the sake of our *learned*, rather than of our merely *professional*, readers:

'As to the Romans, though the contract of bottomry, which is a species of insurance, was well understood among them, as we shall have occasion to shew hereafter, yet there is no mention of insurance in the Roman law; nor is there to be found in any book of that law, or in the Latin language, even a name for this contract, the word *assecuratio* being a barbarism adopted in Italy about the 12th or 13th century, when insurance probably first came into use there; nor does the history of that people any where afford a well-founded reason to believe that this contract was ever in use among them. It is true, that though they had no naval power before the first Punic war, they became masters of the sea before the second; and that, after the battle of Actium, their maritime strength was considered as equal to their dominion on land. But that warlike and ambitious people, during almost all the time of their greatness, cultivated navigation only with a view to war and conquest. Commerce was to them a subject of inferior consideration, which they left to be carried on by the slaves and freed-men of the great. To extend their conquests and consolidate their power, was their principal employment, and almost the only object of their care. Finding themselves masters of the greatest part of the then known world, which they had reduced to subjection by a series of unparalleled conquests, they might easily have engrossed the whole commerce of the nations they had subdued. But they disdained the sober pursuits of industry, the want of which they compensated by the spoils of the conquered provinces.

'Besides, the jealous policy of the Roman state, by an ancient law established by Clodius the tribune, in the time of the first Punic war, and afterwards renewed by the Julian law, prohibited senators from building or possessing ships, lest the power resulting from this species of property might render them formidable to the state.

'What commerce they carried on was principally, if not wholly, confined to the Mediterranean, Ægean, and Euxine seas, which were almost surrounded by their own dominions, and guarded by the armed fleets

fleets of the state, so as to remove all apprehension of *enemies or pirates*. Their small vessels rarely ventured out of port but in fine weather, and then only to coast along the shores, seldom venturing out of sight of land, even in the time of Augustus; the mere *perils of the sea* must therefore have been to them very inconsiderable. So that, whether we contemplate the *extent* of the Roman maritime commerce, or the *perils* to which it was exposed, we may reasonably conclude that it did not stand much in need of the protection of insurance.

'Some, however, have fancied that they could discover, in the Roman history, the first traces of this contract.—Livy relates, that during the second Punic war, certain contractors employed to transport ammunition and provisions to Spain, stipulated that the republic should indemnify them against such losses as might be occasioned by the enemy, or by tempests in the course of the voyage. "*Impetratum fuit, ut, quæ navibus imponerentur ad exercitum Hispaniensem deferendæ, ab hostium tempestatisque vi, publico periculo essent.*" Others rely on a passage in Suetonius, who relates that the emperor Claudius, in a time of scarcity at Rome, in order to encourage the importation of corn, took upon himself all the loss or damage that might be occasioned by storms and tempests in its passage thither. *Negotiatoribus certa lucra proposuit, suscepto in se damno, si quid per tempestates accidisset; et naves, mercaturæ causâ, fabricantibus, magna commoda constituit.* Some years afterwards, contractors, who had been employed to convey provisions to the armies serving in the provinces, were prosecuted for having set up pretended shipwrecks as a ground of charge, the republic having taken such losses upon itself: *Publicum periculum erat à vi tempestatis in iis quæ portabantur ad exercitus.*

'But these instances only serve to shew, that the contractors were to transport the stores purchased of them to the places of their destination, at the risk of the republic. They have scarcely a resemblance in any one particular to the contract of insurance, and are to be looked upon merely as a mode of encouraging persons to supply the demands of the public. Upon no better authority, however, than the above passage in Suetonius, has Malyne roundly asserted, that Claudius had introduced the custom of insurance, 'whereby,' says he, 'the danger and adventure of goods is divided, re-parted, and borne by many persons;—to the end that merchants might augment their traffic, and not adventure all in one bottom to their loss and overthrow.' The same author adds, that 'this custom coming to the knowledge of the inhabitants of Oleron, was recorded by them, and set down for a law, to be observed by all the sea-coast towns of France.' And yet there is not a word in the laws of Oleron, nor in those of Wisbuy or of the Hans-Towns, as collected by Malyne himself, which has the least allusion to insurance.

'A passage in one of Cicero's letters is also adduced, as a proof that the Romans were acquainted with this contract.—Having gained a great victory in Cilicia, and obtained considerable spoils there, he wrote to the *proquæstor*, or under treasurer, *Canninius Sallust*, at Laodicea, in these words: "*Laodiceæ me prædes accepturum arbitror omnis pecuniæ publicæ, ut et mihi et populo cautum sit sine vecturæ periculo.*" From this Emerigon would infer an order to the proquæstor to contract with

with persons who should be answerable for the risk of sending this money by sea to Rome. But the sense of the passage by no means warrants this inference. On the contrary, it seems that Cicero only meant to acquaint the *proquæstor*, that he would have the money at Laodicea, and there take security for its being paid at Rome, without any risk, either to himself or the republic. If this be the right interpretation of Cicero's words, it seems, as Mr. Park has very properly observed, to bear a much stronger allusion to the idea of remitting the money by means of *bills of exchange*, than to that of insuring against the perils of the sea.

'There is in the pandects, an observation of Ulpian, which affords greater colour for supposing that the contract of insurance was not altogether unknown to the Romans, than any of the passages above referred to. He says, "*Illa stipulatio, decem millia salva fore promittis? valet.*" This passage shews, however, that the contract alluded to, whatever it might have been, was very little known at the time Ulpian wrote, since he thought it necessary to observe that *it was not illegal.*'

The causes which led to the increase of maritime commerce, and in course to the introduction and improvement of this contract,—such as the crusades, the discovery of the mariner's compass, the erection of communities or corporations with exclusive privileges and jurisdictions, the discovery of America, and of the passage by sea to the East Indies,—are briefly but distinctly treated. In the account of foreign writers on this part of jurisprudence, Mr. Marshall remarks that

'Valin's commentary on the ordinance of the marine is of the highest value upon every topic of marine law. On the branch which relates to insurance, his commentary is clear, acute, and instructive. Pothier, in his treatise on contracts, unites the most profound learning with the purest morals and the most comprehensive judgment. That upon insurance is neat, concise, and masterly. Emerigon, whose treatise is confined to the subject of insurance, unites great learning with great practical knowledge. His book is, of all the foreign publications on this subject, the most useful to an English lawyer.'

Our own productions on this topic are mentioned in terms of commendation; and the author, in accounting for the few decisions in our courts of common law till the time in which Chief Justice Lee presided in the King's Bench, has given a satisfactory history of the erection of a court in the city of London for the exclusive trial of this description of causes.—The succeeding passage, as pointing out the intelligence which marked and the integrity which governed our determinations, must be read with pride by every Englishman:

'This, however, is certain, that after some of the decisions of the courts of Westminster, upon questions of insurance, came to be generally known, the confidence which the justice, impartiality, and ability

ability of those courts inspired throughout Europe, soon induced the merchants of all countries to prefer English insurances to those of any other country. Even our enemies, in time of war, were not afraid to rely on British justice, and they still continued to cause the greatest part of their insurances to be effected in London, such insurances being for a long time most unaccountably tolerated by the British government.'

As the praise here bestowed on Lord Mansfield was entirely merited by that distinguished Judge, whose decisions on this subject nearly form a code of maritime law, we shall transcribe the passage in which it is introduced:

'Upon Lord Mansfield's succeeding to the same high office, (namely to the Chief Justiceship of England,) upon the death of Sir Dudley Ryder, he soon found a considerable influx of business to the court of King's Bench, arising, in a great measure, from the celebrity of his own talents. A great increase of insurances, not only upon British commerce, but likewise upon that of other countries, produced, about this time, a number of causes upon this subject, to which it became necessary for him to turn his particular attention; and indeed he seems to have taken pleasure in the discussion of questions arising upon this contract, in which, more, perhaps, than upon any other subject, he displayed the powers of his great and comprehensive mind. From the books of the common law very little could be obtained: but upon the subject of marine law, and the particular subject of insurances, the foreign authorities were numerous, and in general satisfactory. From these, and from the information of intelligent merchants, he drew those leading principles, which may be considered as the common law of the sea, and the common law of merchants, which he found prevailing throughout the commercial world, and to which almost every question of insurance was easily referable. Hence the great celebrity of his judgments upon such questions, and hence the respect they commanded in foreign countries *.'

The present publication is divided into four books; and it has been the author's object to arrange his materials 'according to the natural order of events, from the first idea of the contract, till

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'* Of this there cannot be a better proof than the following:—Emerigon, though not altogether free from national prejudices, after giving an account of the decision of the court of King's Bench, in the case of Lavabre v. Walter, concludes with these words;—On ne sauroit s'empêcher d'admirer cette maniere de procéder, quelque éloignée qu'elle soit de nos mœurs; car l'impression que fait la vertu sur nous est si forte, que nous l'aimons jusques dans nos ennemis mêmes. (Ceci etoit écrit en 1781.)—*Tanta vis probitatis est, ut eam in hoste etiam, diligamus. Cic. de Amicitia*, c. 9. Les juges en Angleterre ne croient pas, que ce soit assez de bien faire; ils donnent les motifs de leur decision, afin qu'on sache qu'on est soumis à l'empire de la loi, plutot qu' à l'autorite de l'homme.' Emerig. vol. ii. p. 67,

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the final close of the transactions upon which it is to operate, or which arise out of it.' The decisions of our courts for the last seventy years, as they afford the best materials for a treatise on this subject, are introduced into these volumes. A few of these have never before been in print; others are cited from MS. notes, which appeared to the author fuller and more satisfactory than any that had been before published; and whereever he has discovered any thing which in his opinion militated against any acknowleged principle of law, he has conceived it to be his duty to comment on it with freedom, though with respect.—In this part of the work, many judicious observations will be found: but we must confess that, with the remarks on the celebrated case of *Carter* against *Boehm*, reported in 3 Burr. 1905. and in 1 Bl. 593. we by no means concur. It appears to us that the principles on which Lord Mansfield grounded his decision are perfectly consonant with equity, and not liable to the objections suggested by the learned serjeant. In the chapter on *Concealment*, and in that section of it which discusses *what things need not be disclosed*, this case is introduced; and in order that our readers may be enabled to form an opinion of the arguments which influenced Lord Mansfield's mind, we shall transcribe the rules on this subject, and then the case:

'Either party may be innocently silent as to many matters which are open to both, and upon which they may both exercise their judgments. *Aliud est celare, aliud tacere: Neque enim id est celare quicquid reticeas; sed eum, quod tu scias, id ignorare, emolumenti tui causâ, velis eos, quorum intersit, id scire.* This definition of concealment, restrained to the efficient motives and precise subject of any contract, will generally hold to make it void in favour of either party who is misled by his ignorance of the thing concealed.

'The insured may be innocently silent as to what the underwriter knows as well as he, however he may have come by his knowledge: *Scientia utrinque par pares contrahentes facit.* The insured therefore needs not mention what the underwriter *ought* to know, what he takes upon himself the knowledge of, or what he waves being informed of. The underwriter needs not to be told what lessens the risk agreed upon, and is understood to be comprised within the express terms of the policy. He needs not to be told what is the result of political speculations, or general intelligence: for instance, he is bound to know every cause which may occasion natural perils; as the difficulty of the voyage; the variation of seasons; the probability of lightning, hurricanes, &c.: he is bound to know every cause which may occasion political perils, from the rupture of states, from war, and the various operations of war: he is bound to know the probability of safety from the continuance and return of peace, from the imbecility of the enemy, the weakness of their councils, or their want of strength.'

In addition to these rules, it may be remarked that what is equally open to the observation of both parties needs not be disclosed; and that those things only ought to be communicated, which the one party privately knows, and the other has no reason for suspecting.—With due attention to these principles, we think, this curious and celebrated case was determined:—we hazard no opinion on the subject-matter of the insurance, nor on the expediency or inexpediency of permitting it; we only say that the policy ought not to have been vacated on the ground of an improper concealment.

'An insurance was made for a year, from the 16th of October 1759, against the capture of Fort Marlborough, in the island of Sumatra, by an enemy; for the benefit of the governor Geo. Carter.—The governor's instructions for the insurance were dated the 22d of September 1759, and the policy was signed in May 1760. The fort was taken by Count D'Estaigne within the year, viz. in April 1760, and an action brought to recover the loss.—On the trial, it was objected that there was fraud on the part of the insured, by the concealment of circumstances which ought to have been disclosed; particularly the weakness of the fort, and the probability of its being attacked by the French. This was offered to be proved by two letters; one from the governor to R. Carter his brother and agent; and the other to the India company, from which it appeared that the French, being unable to relieve their friends on the coast, were the more likely to make an attack on this settlement, which they had designed to take by surprise the year before; and that the broker who effected the policy, on his cross examination, said that *in his opinion*, these letters ought to have been produced or the contents disclosed; for if they had, the policy would not have been underwritten.—In reply to this, it was shewn that the governor had 20,000l. in effects in the fort, and only insured 10,000l.; that it did not appear that the French had any design to make the attack till the end of March; that the governor had acted as in full security down to February, and in that month turned his money into goods; and that, though his office was mercantile and not military, he was guilty of no fault in the defence of the place, which was not calculated to resist an European force, but only for defence against the natives.—The plaintiff had a verdict.—A new trial was moved for, on the ground that all the circumstances were not sufficiently disclosed to the underwriters.—But the court, after time taken to deliberate, were clearly of opinion that the plaintiff was intitled to recover, and that the verdict ought to stand.—Lord Mansfield, in delivering the opinion of the court, said;—"The contingency was, whether Fort Marlborough would be attacked by an European power, by *sea*, between October 1759 and October 1760. If it was, it must be taken, being incapable of resistance. The underwriter in London, in May 1760, could judge much better of the probability of this contingency, than governor Carter could at Fort Marlborough in September 1759. He knew the success of the operations of the war in Europe, what naval forces

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the English and French had sent to the East Indies, and whether the sea was open to any attempt from the French He knew, or might have known, every thing which was known at Fort Marlborough in September 1759, of the general state of affairs in the East Indies, or of the particular condition of Fort Marlborough, by the ship which brought the orders for the insurance *. Under these circumstances, he insures against the general contingency of the place being attacked by an European power. If there had been any design on foot or enterprize begun in September 1759, it would have varied the risk understood by the underwriter, on account of his not being told of a particular design *then subsisting*. But the governor had no notice of such a design, nor was there, in fact, any such design. The attempt was made without premeditation, from the sudden opportunity of a favourable occasion, by the connivance of the Dutch which tempted D'Estaigne to break his parole.—As to the *first* concealment, that he did not disclose the condition of the place,—The underwriters knew that the insurance was for the governor, who must be acquainted with the state of the place and who could not disclose it consistently with his duty †; but, by insuring, he apprehended at least the probability of an attack. With this knowledge, and without asking a question, he underwrote; and, by so doing, he took the knowledge of the state of the place upon himself, though it was a matter about which he might have been informed various ways: it was not a matter within the private knowledge of the governor only. But, independent of that, it is enough if the fort was in the condition in which it ought to be, which was only to resist the natives; in like manner as that a ship insured is presumed to be sea-worthy. The contingency insured against was, whether the place would be attacked by an European force, and not whether it would be able to resist such an attack, if the ships could get up the river. It was found that this was the contingency in the contemplation of the parties.—The *second* concealment was, his not having disclosed that the French, not being able to relieve their friends on the coast, might make an attack on him. This was mere speculation dictated by fear, and not a fact in the case. It was a bold attempt for the conquered to attack the conqueror in his own dominion. The practicability of it depended on the English naval force in those seas, of which the underwriter could better judge at London in May 1760, than the governor at Fort Marlborough in September 1759.—The *third* concealment was that

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'* There is nothing in the report of this case from whence it can be fairly inferred, that the underwriter knew, or might have known, all these things. The probability seems to be the other way; nor is it any excuse for a concealment, that the underwriter might, by inquiring, have learned all that it was necessary for him to know.'

'† The argument here used is not quite consistent with a subsequent part of this judgment, where, to prove that no fraud was imputable to the governor, it is said,—"By the same conveyance which brought his orders to insure, he wrote to the company every thing which he knew or suspected; and desired nothing to be kept a secret which he wrote either to them or his brother."

he did not disclose the design of the *French* to attack the place the year before. That design rested merely in report; but taking it in the strongest light, it is the report of a design the year before; but then dropped.—Another silence, not objected to was, that it appeared by the governor's letter to his agent, that he was apprehensive of a Dutch war: that he had good grounds for this apprehension appeared from the subsequent conduct of the Dutch, to whom the loss of the place was owing. The reason why the counsel did not object to this concealment was, because it must have arisen from political speculation, and general intelligence; and it is not necessary to disclose such things to an underwriter.—With respect to the opinion of the broker, the jury were not bound to pay the least regard to it. It was mere opinion, after the event. If rightly formed, it could only be drawn from the same premises from which the court and jury were to determine the cause; and therefore improper and irrelevant in the mouth of a witness.—With respect to the governor, there was no ground to impute fraud to him. By the same conveyance which brought his orders to insure, he wrote to the company every thing he knew or suspected. He desired nothing to be kept secret which he wrote to them or to his brother *. The reason of the rule against concealments is, to prevent fraud and encourage good faith †. If the defendant's objections were to prevail, in the present instance, the rule would be turned into an instrument of fraud. The underwriter, knowing that the governor apprehended danger, and that he must have some ground for his apprehension, being told nothing of either, signed the policy, without asking a question. If the objection "that he was not told" be sufficient to vacate it, he took the premium, *knowing* the policy to be void ‡, in order to gain if the alternative turned one way, and make no satisfaction, if it turned out the other. There was not a word said to him of the affairs of India, or the state of the war there, or the condition of Fort Marlborough.

' * What he wrote to the company was not likely to be made public, and therefore not likely to come to the knowledge of the underwriter! What he wrote to his brother ought to have been disclosed; and though this concealment might not be imputable to the governor as a *fraud*, yet its effect in avoiding the policy would be the same. It is said that he desired nothing to be concealed: but a concealment without the desire, or even against the will, of the insured, will avoid a policy.' Vid. sup. 335.

' † We have his Lordship's authority, and the authority of plain reason for saying, that a concealment may avoid a policy, and yet be quite innocent.' Vid. sup. 347.

' ‡ How could the underwriter *know* that the policy was void by reason of a concealment, without knowing what was concealed? Upon whom does the obligation lie; the insured to disclose what he knows, or the underwriter to fish it out by asking questions? The argument goes to prove, that if the underwriter asks no questions, the insured is obliged to disclose nothing; which is true only with respect to matters of public notoriety.'

If

If he thought that omission an objection at the time *, he ought not to have signed the policy, with a secret reserve in his own mind to make it void: if he dispensed with the information †, and did not think this silence an objection then, he cannot take it up now after the event."

From the length of our extracts, it will easily be inferred that we think favourably of the general merits of this work, though we have expressed our dissent from some particular passages. Certainly, much useful knowlege is here collected; and the author has evinced powers of patient industry and nice discrimination, though in some instances he may be considered as having betrayed symptoms of subtlety and refinement, which the subject scarcely admitted.

S.R.

ART. VIII. *Observations on the Marsh Remittent Fever,* &c. Also on the Water Canker, or Cancer Aquaticus of Van Swieten; with some Remarks on the Leprosy. By the late Robert Hamilton, M. D. of King's Lynn. With Memoirs of the Author's Life. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Mawman. 1801.

THIS posthumous work is introduced by a brief account of the author; who appears to have been a very respectable physician, but whose life affords no occurrence that can gratify curiosity. The essays on the Marsh Remittent Fever are calculated chiefly for local information. Dr. H. observes that inundations are generally followed, on the coast of Norfolk, by remittent fevers; and the epidemic which he describes continued nearly five years. It then declined, and did not again appear as an epidemic:

'It is not easy (says Dr. H.) to ascertain the cause of this fortunate alteration, from a highly morbid predisposition to a dangerous epidemic fever, and a total cessation of its appearance in that form: probably, however, this change may be found to have proceeded from the great quantity of rain, which has fallen in the summer months of every succeeding year to that period; which, by keeping the mud or ooze of the fens, marshes, and ditches, covered with water; the air temperate, or rather cool from the evaporation; and thus preventing, in a great degree, the putrefaction of animal and vegetable matter, and consequently the exhalation of putrid miasmata: the atmosphere, of course, was preserved more pure and uncontaminated, and the marsh remittent fever prevented from appearing in an epidemic form. Yet, notwithstanding this favourable circumstance, some sporadic cases of this and the intermittent, from particular local circumstances, con-

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' * How could he judge of the omission, without knowing what was omitted?'

' † How could he be supposed to dispense with the information when the silence of the insured was, according to all practice, a proof that he had none to communicate?'

tinue, and ever will, to make their appearance in the usual seasons, every year, although in no great number.

'We are led by analogy to consider this to have been the case, because long experience had taught us, that the continuance of the disease was checked by rains filling the ditches in winter, and the cold stopping its progress in an epidemic form.'

The following is a description of the disease:

'The attack of this distemper was marked by a chilness, sometimes by a shivering like the cold stage of an intermittent; and this rigour was of different degrees of violence and duration, in different subjects, and often accompanied with wandering spasmodic pains in the back and extremities. This was succeeded by an intense burning heat in the trunk of the body, particularly about the gastric region and the hypochondria, without any remarkable thirst, whilst at the same time the extremities were cold to the touch and feeling of the patient; the head ached violently, the pulse was low, irregular, and very quick, and the whole was accompanied with anxiety, and great, indeed most extraordinary, prostration of strength. This was generally attended with a vomiting of viscid matter, acid, offensive to the smell, and mixed with bile, either yellow or green, often of a very dark green colour, approaching to black; and sometimes the matter thus ejected was black. There was most commonly a most profuse purging also, of the same kind, exceedingly fœtid, and so acrid as to excoriate the parts about the anus: in short, these two discharges constituted a symptomatic cholera morbus.

'Those symptoms continued with great violence for twelve or fourteen hours before any remission took place, when a gentle sweat broke out, the fever abated, and the vomiting and purging lessened, or entirely ceased, as the sweating increased; but this remission was but of short duration, perhaps three or four hours, when the chilness and exacerbation of fever recurred with additional violence, and the same train of subsequent symptoms. The tongue had a most singular appearance, and indeed was so characteristic of the disease, that the bare inspection of it was sufficient to distinguish its existence. It was at first moist, with a thin white mucous covering, which in a few days became gradually thicker, forming a coat much resembling thin wet leather stretched over it; and as the disease advanced some twelve or more days, it turned brown in the middle, and in many black, in the last stage of the distemper, but never very dry and parched.'

Dr. H. has described several varieties of the complaint, which sometimes ran into the worst form of Typhus. We observe nothing particularly deserving notice in the practice recommended by the Doctor. He gave an emetic at the onset of the disease, afterward a purgative, followed by an opiate; and on the first subsequent remission, Peruvian bark was administered.—All the practical observations deserve attention, being very judicious, and delivered in plain unaffected language.

The symptoms of the Water-Canker, which is a disease (according to the author) endemic on the coast of Norfolk, are thus delineated:

'The first symptom of the approach of the water-canker is an inflammation without any swelling, of a remarkable bright pale red colour, on the sharp edge of the gums next the teeth, sometimes in the upper, sometimes in the lower jaw, very rarely in both at the same time. It is most commonly before, at the bottoms of the dentes incisivi, but sometimes it appears on the sides at the molares. This inflammation generally extends along five or more teeth, and the colour of it is so remarkable, that it is readily known and distinguished from common inflammation, and its consequences dreaded by people conversant with the distemper. The inflamed edge of the gums soon becomes ulcerated, in nearly a straight line, as far as the inflammation reaches, as if the edge had been cut off by a sharp instrument. The same kind of inflammation continues on the outer edge of the ulceration, and within that towards the teeth, there is either a white or an ash coloured slough extending from one end to the other, which is a real gangrenous eschar. The breath begins to be very offensive, and a discharge of a very fœtid ichor mixed with saliva flows plentifully from the mouth. The ulcer spreads daily, the gums being gradually eaten as it were away by the corrosive ichor. The discharge increases and becomes more offensive, and the eschar becomes deeper, and is frequently coming away and is succeeded by a fresh one. The ulcer bleeds on the slightest touch, and small coagula forming are detained on different parts of the surface, covering and disguising the slough. Thus does the disease continue its ravages until the gums are destroyed completely, and extending to the lining of the mouth, the neighbouring soft parts are involved in the destruction. The teeth now drop out, and happy is it for the patient if the depredation stops here, as their loss if the patient is very young may be supplied; but this is not often the case; for the secondary teeth next fall victims to its virulence, and with them the alveolar processes. Even cruel as this evil is, it would here be comparatively tolerable, could a stop be now put to the ravages of this rapacious enemy, which is very seldom to be effected: for now begins a scene shocking to humanity.

'The disease seeming to have acquired force in proportion to the extension of the ulcer, and the destruction it has occasioned, the fœtor becomes intolerable, the discharge then glazy and caustic to the highest degree, is prodigious in quantity, and corrodes wherever it falls. The bones, now a prey to the distemper, are as readily destroyed, indeed really dissolved (no vestige of the softer ones remaining) as the soft parts; and the destruction daily goes on, exhibiting a most shocking spectacle, until death happily puts a period to the pains and existence at the same time, of the miserable patient, which generally happens in a few days after the bones are affected.

'The concomitant symptoms attending the progress of this distemper are as follow.

'The pulse is quick, accompanied at first with frequent rigors; the countenance is of a dusky pale cadaverous hue; the tunicæ conjunctivæ oculorum of a remarkable blue cast; and as the disease goes

on, the features and indeed the whole visage become contracted, and strongly marked with the distress of the suffering patient.'

The external application of the muriatic acid, in a diluted state, was found by Dr. Hamilton to be the most efficacious remedy; and, internally, the same acid was given, with Peruvian bark.

We forbear to criticize the remarks on leprosy, at the conclusion of the volume, because they are evidently published in a very imperfect state, without the last correction and revision of the writer.—Altogether, with due allowance for the disadvantageous circumstances under which this volume appears, it will not detract from the merited reputation of Dr. Hamilton.

Fer.

ART. IX. *Observations on the Increase and Decrease of different Diseases*, and particularly of the Plague. By William Heberden jun., M.D. F.R.S. 4to. 5s. Payne. 1801.

AMONG the different channels through which the improvement of medicine has been attempted, few are more important than the registers of mortality. Yet so imperfect have they been often found, that inquirers have been deterred from pursuing the deductions which might be drawn from more accurate information. Dr. Heberden observes that,

'The agreement of the Bills with each other does alone carry with it a strong proof, that the numbers under the several articles are by no means set down at random; but must be taken from the uniform operation of some permanent cause. While the gradual changes they exhibit in particular diseases, correspond to the alterations which in time are known to take place in the channels through which the great stream of mortality is constantly flowing.'

The body of the work consists of two tables; the first of which contains the annual christenings and burials in London for each year of the eighteenth century; together with the proportion out of every thousand, who have died by bowel complaints, small-pox, palsy, measles, or child-birth. The second table consists of ten different articles, extracted from the London weekly bills of mortality, shewing their variations in every week for ten years.

Among other curious facts noticed by Dr. Heberden, in his remarks on these tables, he observes that there was a considerable diminution of christenings from 1740 to 1760. For this, he says, it is not easy to account: but, as it is connected with some important conclusions, we shall extract his farther observations on the subject:

'Whatever

'Whatever be the cause of this, the christenings appear in fact to have been fewest at a time when the burials were nearly at the highest. Hence the difference of the numbers christened and buried is greater between the years 1740 and 1750, than at any preceding or subsequent period. This difference diminished afterwards; but still continued very considerable till about 1770. Now, it was from an average of ten years taken in this interval, namely from 1759 to 1768, that Dr. Price constructed his tables of the probabilities of life, and from which he deduced the population of London. The excess of the burials above the christenings amounted at that time to nearly one-third of the whole number of burials. At present, it is less than one twentieth: nay, in the years 1790, 1797, and 1799, the excess was actually on the side of the christenings. Such a prodigious change ought, one would think, considerably to alter Dr. Price's conclusions. Some allowances are however to be made; particularly in consequence of an act of parliament passed in 1767, by which it is required that all parish infants shall be sent into the country in three weeks after their birth, to be nursed there till they are six years old. How many burials of children are taken out of the bills in consequence of this act, it is not easy to estimate; but that it must be a large number, is rendered probable by the remarkable decrease of those reported to die under two years of age.'

The decline of Dysentery in London is another curious fact; which Dr. H. imputes to the improvements that have taken place in the manner of living.

That the mortality from small-pox has increased since the introduction of inoculation, though not by the death of those who have been inoculated, is a fact which has been satisfactorily explained: but the vaccine inoculation, we trust, will effectually diminish the ravages of that dreadful disease.

The number of deaths from apoplexy and palsy has been increasing, and is now nearly double its amount a hundred years ago.

The mortality of lying-in women appears to have diminished. The following statement is given by Dr. H. as the average of the mortality occasioned by certain diseases, during a period of ten years, at the beginning, middle, and end of the 18th century:

	Beginning.	Middle.	End.
'Abortive and Still-born -	600	570	750
Colic, Flux, Gripes, &c. -	1,100	135	20
Consumption -	3,000	4,000	5,000
Dropsy - -	850	900	900
Evil -	70	15	8
Fever - -	3,000	3,000	2,000
Gout - -	26	40	66
Lunatic -	27	75	70
Palsy, Apoplexy, &c. -	157	280	300
Rickets -	380	11	1
Small Pox -	1,600	2,000	2,000

The whole number of deaths is greatest in January, February, and March; and least in June, July, and August. February, Dr. H. thinks, is the most fatal month of the twelve.—He states several arguments against the opinion that wet weather is noxious to the human body, and instances particularly the wet year 1797, which was a healthy one.

The decrease of the plague, till its happy extinction in London, is attributed by Dr. Heberden (in common with other authors,) to the improved modes of building and ventilation, introduced after the great fire. Though in this part of the work we meet with no novelty of opinion, yet we were pleased to see the collection of accurate facts which Dr. H. has made on this most interesting point. We trust that he will prosecute researches so useful, without being discouraged by their laborious nature, or by the meagreness of deduction with which they are attended.

Another medical work has been published by Dr. Heberden, which will shortly engage our attention.

Fer.

ART. X. *A Treatise on the Means of purifying Infected Air, or preventing Contagion*, and arresting its Progress. By L. B. Guyton-Morveau. Translated from the French by R. Hall, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Hurst. 1802.

THIS celebrated chemist here informs the public that he had recommended fumigation with the vapour of the muriatic acid, so long ago as the year 1773, in order to correct the noxious atmosphere of the burying-vaults under the church at Dijon; and he gives a history of the progress of this plan, which seems to have been forgotten in France till the trials of it in our navy recalled it to notice. He then enters into a detail of his experiments on the combination of the vapours of acids with noxious gas, and takes occasion to state some curious facts on the subject of putrefaction. He found that a considerable quantity of carbonic acid gas was disengaged in putrid substances, and that lime extricates ammoniacal gas from them:

'But the first experiment furnishes us with a result much more important, and which cannot be too much dwelt upon, in order to undeceive those who imprudently confide in the opinion which unfortunately has met with too general a reception, that lime water decomposes the contagious miasmata. It proves that corrupted air preserves its smell, even after being agitated with lime water, and before the latter is deprived of its active qualities. From this fact we may learn how to estimate the practice, recommended in the most recent works, even in cases of plague, of new white-washing with lime the walls of infected places.'—

'The

'The ammoniacal gas extricated by lime from putrid animal substances, is undoubtedly a new compound, as well as that obtained by distillation from the same substances before putrefaction. It might hence be presumed, that if it be not the volatile principle which carries up with it into the atmosphere the contagious miasmata, it is at least one of the ingredients in their composition.'

The fumes of vinegar and of the mineral acids were found, by a series of experiments, to correct the fœtor of putrid air, and to destroy its peculiar action on different substances: but the fumes of the oxygenated muriatic acid proved the most powerful in this respect.—We shall copy the author's account of a very easy method of procuring this gas:

'Into a flask, the capacity of which was three centilitres, I introduced four grammes of the black oxyd of manganese, grossly powdered; I then filled the flask about two-thirds full with the nitro-muriatic acid. After a few minutes, on being agitated, the oxygenated acid gas was disengaged with such intensity, that vegetable colours, applied to the mouth of the flask, were in a very short time radically destroyed. The ease, and particularly the promptitude, with which, without the intervention of a distilling apparatus, this powerful re-agent may thus be procured, induced me to name it the *extemporaneous oxygenated muriatic acid*, and I have since discovered another property of this preparation which will render it still more generally useful. The difficulty of preserving the oxygenated muriatic acid, procured by the common processes, unchanged even in the closest vessels, is well known; whatever may have been the degree of its concentration when put up, we always find it after a short time reduced to a liquid which only changes into red, paper tinged with turnsol, without destroying the colouring principle. A jar prepared in the manner here pointed out, after being forgotten eight years in my laboratory, diffused, on being opened, an odour capable of painfully affecting the organs when breathed without precaution.'

The explosion of gun-powder appears to have no effect on putrid air.

M. Guyton-Morveau recommends the employment of the oxygenated muriatic acid in order to destroy the putrid vapours in dissecting rooms, and he expects that it may be used with great success in preventing the diffusion of contagion. We suspect, however, that, like many other chemists, he attributes too great a degree of medicinal power to oxygen. His account of the anti-siphylitic action of the mineral acids is not supported by general experience; and he certainly overrates the medical effects of the gases, internally administered.

The author enters into some curious speculations on the nature of contagion, which he supposes to depend on *superazotation*: but this can only be regarded as an ingenious conjecture. The experiments related on the neutralization of

variolous and siphylitic matter, by mixing it with oxygen, require confirmation. In the latter case, indeed, there is great room for doubt, because it is not stated whether the pus was taken from a primary or from a secondary ulcer.

A hint suggested respecting the poison of hydrophobia deserves attention. The butter of antimony is recommended by M. le Roux, as capable of destroying the infection by chemical affinity, in the wound. This ought to be tried.

In the recapitulation with which the volume concludes, the author gives the following directions for fumigating with muriatic acid gas, which may be easily practised in any family:

'The following receipt will render every individual capable of performing the process of fumigation; for which no other apparatus is necessary than a bottle of sulphuric acid (oil of vitriol of commerce), a large glass goblet, and some common salt. The goblet being placed on the ground, or on a table in the middle of the room, a large spoonful of the salt must be put into it, and a very small *liqueur* glass full of the acid should be added at three or four different times, with an interval between each time: at every effusion of the acid there will be disengaged and diffused throughout the apartment a quantity of vapour, which will come into contact with the fetid or malignant miasmata, without producing any inconvenience to the persons present.'

To obtain the oxygenated muriatic gas, it is only necessary to add a small quantity of the black oxyd of manganese to the preceding ingredients.—We shall be glad to learn that M. Guyton-Morveau's facts and opinions are corroborated by farther experience; because the subject is of the first importance to society.—Several judicious notes are added by the translator, who has executed his task in a very respectable manner.

Fer.

ART. XI. M. Denon's *Travels in Upper and Lower Egypt.*—Two Translations.

[*Article concluded from p.* 166.]

WITH pleasure we resume our attendance on this intelligent and enterprizing traveller, who appears to have availed himself of every opportunity for exploring a country which, notwithstanding the repeated visits of ingenious and philosophic individuals, is yet very imperfectly known to Europeans. Even M. Denon's situation, though it afforded advantages superior to those which his predecessors enjoyed, was not altogether propitious to the chief objects of his inquiries. The French army under General Desaix, detached by Bonaparte to effect the conquest of Upper Egypt, was so continually harrassed by Arabs, Mamelukes, and Meccans, headed by Murad Bey,

Bey, and it was so often in imminent danger of being completely destroyed, that it could not furnish that protection to the artist and the antiquary which was necessary to perfect research, and to the execution of accurate drawings and admeasurements. None can withhold their admiration of the undaunted perseverance of M. Denon in the midst of perils and hardships; while few will be thoroughly satisfied, because, like former travellers, he rather stimulates than allays our curiosity. Indeed, we are induced to lament that, since the heroism of our army and navy had atchieved the complete conquest of Egypt, our Government did not resolve on retaining possession of it; and on following up the plan of the French by attaching to the army (which must have been kept up in that country) a corps of scientific men, whose office it should be to explore its antiquities and to suggest the best means for its improvement. We might then have obtained an accurate and full account of every interesting object; we might have made that country a source of riches equally, perhaps, with any region of the East; and we might have diffused happiness among a people who are now oppressed by the most miserable of all governments. Since this desirable event was not destined to take place, the glimmering of light which appeared to dawn on Egypt is now eclipsed, and it seems to be again doomed to remain the land of darkness and of plagues.

In former ages, the state of Egypt must have been the reverse of its present condition. Antient history, and the antiquities which still exist, attest its pristine knowlege, civilization, and importance. It has been remarked that the Greeks, to whom the invention of architecture is generally ascribed, were only copiers of the Egyptians *; who certainly carried this art to an astonishing degree of perfection. Still, however, it is doubtful whether its origin should be ascribed to them, or whether we are not to consider Chaldea as the source of the sciences, as it undoubtedly was the cradle of the human race: but, to whatever country the absolute invention is to be attributed, the nature of the materials found in Egypt by the artist †, combining with the projects executed under the direction of her antient kings and priests, has stamped such permanency on the works of Egyptian architects, that we

* In the preface to Norden's Travels, it is observed that "the curious may find in Egypt the school of Grecian architecture."

† Some of the Egyptian columns are thirty-two *French* feet in circumference.—How much nobler a west-front would St. Paul's Cathedral have exhibited, had our quarries furnished to Sir Christopher Wren similar materials! Surely, then it would not have exhibited two tiers of columns.

may now seek in vain, on any other spot of the globe, for remains of equal antiquity. Hence these monuments challenge singular veneration; and it may be presumed that, when they are carefully explored and studied, they will suggest such hints to the modern artist as will enable him to improve the system delivered to us by our Grecian masters. Pocock, Norden, and others, have copied in their works the various beautiful forms of the Egyptian capitals. M. Denon has followed them by enriching his Travels with similar drawings: he has indeed enlarged the collection of capitals; and he has subjoined to the plates which exhibit them the following note, which, though not new, is at least judicious:

'In viewing such variety of form, uniting such richness of ornament with elegance of outline, one may well be surprised that the world has allowed the Greeks, on their own assertion, the merit of being the inventors of architecture, and that all the truths of this art are to be sought for in the rules of the three Grecian orders. Might we not suppose that if some history, like that of the urn of the priestess of Corinth, were attached to each of these capitals, they would each have acquired equal celebrity; or rather we may assert, that they require no adventitious reputation to claim the admiration of all lovers of the fine arts, as beautiful productions of human skill.

'The Egyptians have copied nature, such as it appears in their own country; this the Greeks have borrowed from them, and have added to it nothing but fable. Here, the calyx of a flower, supported by its stem, has furnished the form of the column, its base, and its capital; the lotus has afforded the first model, and this plant was expressive of the inundation, the emblem of the entrance of the Nile into the canals, the greatest bounty which nature bestows on the Egyptians; they have therefore introduced this plant into the decoration of their temples, as a homage of gratitude to Isis, who presided over this bounteous gift: as goddess of the earth, they have also dedicated to her the other productions of the soil, the reed, the palm, the vine, &c.' [*Aikin.*]

'Among these significant capitals, which adorned in an explicative manner the worship of the divinity whose temple they decorated, may be particularized one from which spring the leaves and stems of the papyrus or reed; a second, composed of the branches and leaves of the palm-tree, and the different stages of its fruit, is perhaps the most elegant of all known capitals, and one which, without having in Europe that interest which belongs to it in Egypt, would still make the most splendid of decorations for a banqueting or ball room; a third is composed of several calyxes of the flower of the lotus, grouped with the leaves of the plant; a fourth, of a bunch of the tufts of palm-trees, when, in spring time, the branches and flowers are not yet developed, and the whole tree resembles the bud of a flower; a fifth is ingeniously made up of the root of the plant lotus, its stem, and its flower alternately open and in bud; a sixth, of branches of the vine mingled with those of palm-trees. This variety

of

of capitals, thus richly compounded, enable us to give credit to the pompous descriptions which have been transmitted to us of those of the temple of Solomon, which are spoken of in the scriptures as Corinthian capitals with leaves of the palm-tree.

'The head of Isis, with all her attributes, crowns the columns of the temple of Tintyra. In the temple of Hermontis, which appears to have been dedicated to Typhon, his figure is represented on a die, which is no more than a prolongation of the column; this member of architecture, which appears to be peculiar to the Egyptian column, disengages the capital, prevents its appearing to be crushed by the architrave, and produces so fine an effect when the eye is near the column, that it is astonishing it should never have been imitated.' [*Kendal.*]

M. Denon adds also that the Grecian Caryatides were imitated from the figures of priests, or divinities, employed as ornaments in various Egyptian edifices.—The bases of the columns in the portico of the temple at Latopolis are singularly beautiful, and may be often copied with good effect. —As it is extremely probable that the temple of Solomon at Jerusalem was built from an Egyptian model, may we not fairly presume that the two pillars which are said to have been erected before it, (see 2. Chron. iii. 17.) and called Jachin and Boaz, were two *obelisks*, similar to those which are now to be seen before the temple of Luxor?

Our readers will make other remarks, which we must not attempt farther to anticipate; a great part of M. Denon's travels still remaining to be noticed.

From Tintyra, the traveller proceeded to Thebes in company with the cavalry belonging to General Desaix's army; and the impression which the approach to that celebrated city produced is thus described:

'At nine o'clock, in making a sharp turn round the point of a projecting chain of mountains, we discovered all at once the site of the ancient Thebes in its whole extent: this celebrated city, the size of which Homer has characterized by the single expression of *with a hundred gates*, a boasting and poetical phrase, that has been repeated with so much confidence for many centuries; this illustrious city, described in a few pages dictated to Herodotus by Egyptian priests, that have been since copied by every historian, celebrated by the number of its kings, whose wisdom has raised them to the rank of gods, by laws which have been revered without being promulgated, by science involved in pompous and enigmatical inscriptions, the first monuments of ancient learning which are still spared by the hand of time; this abandoned sanctuary, surrounded with barbarism, and again restored to the desert from which it had been drawn forth, enveloped in the veil of mystery, and the obscurity of ages, whereby even its own colossal monuments are magnified to the imagination, still impressed the mind with such gigantic phantoms, that the whole army,

army, suddenly and with one accord, stood in amazement at the sight of its scattered ruins, and clapped their hands with delight, as if the end and object of their glorious toils, and the complete conquest of Egypt, were accomplished and secured by taking possession of the splendid remains of this ancient metropolis. I took a view of this first aspect of Thebes, along with the spectacle before me; the knees of the enthusiastic soldiers served me as a table, their bodies as a shade, whilst the dazzling rays of the burning sun enlightened this magnificent spectacle, and exhibited the electric emotion of a whole army of soldiers, whose delicate sensibility made me feel proud of being their companion, and glory in calling myself a Frenchman.

'The situation of this town is as fine as can well be imagined; and the immense extent of its ruins convinces the spectator that fame has not magnified its size; for the diameter of Egypt not being sufficient to contain it, its monuments rest upon the two chains of mountains which are contiguous, whilst its tombs occupy the vallies towards the west, far on into the desert.' [*Aikin.*]

M. Denon visits the Necropolis *, the colossal statues of Memnon and Osymandyas, the portico of Esneh or Latopolis, the purest fragment of Egyptian architecture, Hieraconpolis, and Apollinopolis Magna. We shall transcribe his remarks on the colossal statues:

'At some paces from this gate are the remains of an enormous colossus; it has been wantonly shattered, for the parts which are left have so well preserved their polish, and the fractures their edges, that it is evident, if the spirit of devastation in mankind had trusted to time alone to ruin this monument, we should still see it entire and uninjured. Suffice it to say, to give an idea of its dimensions, that the breadth of the shoulders is twenty-five feet, which would give about seventy-five for the entire height: the figure is exact in its proportions, the style middling, but the execution perfect; when overset, it fell upon its face, which hides this interesting part; the drapery being broken, we can no longer judge by its attributes whether it is the figure of a king or a divinity. Is it the statue of Memnon, or that of Osymandyas?—the descriptions hitherto given of this monument throw more confusion than light upon this question. If it is the statue of Memnon, which appears to me the more probable, every traveller for two thousand years must have mistaken the object of their curiosity, as will be seen by the inscription of the names on another colossal statue, of which I shall directly speak.

'One foot of this statue remains, which is broken off and in good preservation; it may be easily carried away, and may give those in Europe a scale of comparison of the monuments of this species, and

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'* All the discussions published (says M. Denon) on this subject, and which render its situation uncertain, have been written by learned men, who never visited Egypt, and were therefore incapable of judging how scrupulously exact are the descriptions of it, given by Herodotus and Strabo.'

will

will serve as a companion to the colossal feet which are in the court of the capitol at Rome. The spot where this figure stood might be either a temple or a palace, or both at the same time; for if the bas-relief would belong more properly to a royal residence, the figures of eight priests, which are in the front of two porticoes in the inner part, would peculiarly indicate a temple, except indeed they were introduced to remind the sovereign that, conformably to the law, the priests ought always to serve and assist in the exercise of monarchical power.

'Our attention was arrested in the plain by two large statues in a sitting posture, between which, according to Herodotus, Strabo, and those who have copied the relation of these writers, was the famous statue of Osymandyas, the largest of all these colossal figures. Osymandyas had prided himself so much on the execution of this bold design, that he had caused an inscription to be engraven on the pedestal of the statue, in which he defied the power of man to destroy this monument, as well as that of his tomb, the pompous description of which now appears only a fantastic dream. The two statues still left standing are doubtless those of the mother and the son of this prince, mentioned by Herodotus: that of the king himself has disappeared, the hand of time and the teeth of envy appear to have united zealously in its destruction, and nothing of it remains but a shapeless rock of granite; so that it requires the persevering look of the amateur, accustomed to this kind of examination, to distinguish any portions of the figure which have escaped destruction; and even those are so insignificant, that they can throw no light on its dimensions. The two statues still existing are in the proportion of from fifty to sixty-five feet in height; they are seated with their two hands on their knees; all that remains of them shews a severity of style, and a straightness of position. The bas-reliefs and the small figures clustered round the seat of the southermost of these statues, are not without elegance and delicacy in the execution. On the leg of the statue the most to the north, the names of the illustrious and ancient travellers who came to hear the sound of the statue of Memnon are written in Greek. We may here see the great influence which celebrity exercises over the minds of men, since, when the ancient Egyptian government and the jealousy of the priests no longer forbade strangers to touch these monuments, the love of the marvellous retained its empire over the minds of those that came hither as visitors. Thus, in the age of Adrian, which was enlightened by philosophy, Sabina, the wife of this emperor, and herself a literary woman, condescended, along with the learned men who accompanied her, to acknowledge that she had heard sounds which no physical cause could have produced. But the vanity of inscribing one's name on such antiquities might very easily have produced the first on the list, and the natural desire of becoming an associate in this kind of glory might have added the rest, and this is doubtless the reason of the numberless inscriptions of names which we find here, with so many dates, and in so many languages.' [*Aikin.*]

The pleasure which resulted from the survey of these magnificent objects was not without its alloy, as the following detail

detail will evince. On the day after their visit to Apollinopolis Magna, says the traveller,

'We entered the desert by a mountain composed of decayed slate, free-stone, white and rose-coloured quartz, and brown flint, with several white cornelians. After marching five hours in the desert, our soldiers had their shoes torn, and were obliged to put what linen they could about their feet, and were tormented with a burning thirst. No water could be found but in the Nile, which was a league out of our way, for the banks were as arid as the desert; but the urgency of thirst prevailed, and we arrived at the river exhausted with fatigue; but the camp equipage, the draught animals of which had had no food the night before, were so weakened by hunger, that but a few of them were able to follow. What was the general distress when it was announced that there was nothing to eat! We looked at each other in mute consternation: but, after a while, a camel with a light load of butter came up, and some others, whose provision-sacks had been already emptied; but by shaking out every dust of meal from the bags, and rummaging every corner, we found enough to make a distribution of a handful of flour to each: directly we got firing from a neighbouring tree, made our flour into fritters, employment drove away our gloomy ideas, and French gaiety soon prevailed, and restored our usual courage. We set out again briskly after our refreshment; but our poor horses, who had not regaled upon fritters, fell down from under us through inanition; we could do nothing but lead and support them with our hands, or else we must have abandoned them; in short, we were compelled to march, and our necessity alone made it practicable, and many are the resources contained in this single word, necessity.

'Half an hour after we had passed the first desert, we came to the ruins of Silsilis, which consist of broken fragments, bricks, and the remains of a temple, the highest walls of which are now not more than three feet above the soil. One can just discover that the nave of the temple, which is covered with hieroglyphics, was surrounded with a gallery, to which, in a latter period, a portico without hieroglyphics has been added. We returned a third time into the desert; a hyena followed the column for a considerable time.' [*Aikin.*]

The French being bent on conquering as well as on exploring Upper Egypt, opposition and danger were created, which the presence of an army could not always obviate: hence we find the French artist incessantly surrounded with imminent perils; and his journal in many instances resembles more a dispatch from the General of an army than a communication from a scientific traveller. We shall however principally regard him in the latter character, though we must not forget to relieve the sombre views of ruins by the occasional introduction of a battle-piece.—M. Denon now advances to Siene, to the island of Elephantina, to the blocks of granite engraven with hieroglyphics, and to the cataracts of the Nile, which latter are represented as very inconsiderable.

'We

'We quitted (says he) the little boat in which we had come up, and walking by the side of the stream for about a quarter of an hour, we came to the part which is generally called *the cataract*. This is nothing but a range of rocks, over which the river flows, forming in some places cascades a few inches in height; they are so insignificant, that they can hardly be represented in a drawing; but I just sketched the bar where this celebrated navigation ends, in order to do away the impression that has been given of the great fall of these famous cataracts. However, they would make a fine picture, if they were represented with the colour which characterizes them.' [*Idem.*]

The reader will recollect that M. Denon's visit to this spot was in the month of February. Norden, who saw the same cataract in December, says that "it had about *four* feet in its fall and thirty feet in length." Another of our former travellers, Dr. Pocock, describes these cataracts more particularly. He speaks of three falls: the first not above three feet; the second may be about seven or eight feet; the third, he says, is greater than the other, the middle fall of which he judged to be five feet. None of these accounts, however, justify the extravagant notions entertained by the antients, respecting the stunning noise occasioned by these falls. See Cicero, Som. Scip. c. 5. This passage would better apply to the Falls of Niagara than to the *Catadupa Nili.*

The view of Philöe animated in a peculiar degree the enthusiasm of the present traveller; and his opportunity of exploring it was superior to that which Norden enjoyed, who recites the unfavourable circumstances which obstructed his endeavours. His plan of the island and of the site of the ruins is evidently erroneous. We transcribe M. Denon's account:

'The next day was the finest to me of my whole travels: I possessed seven or eight monuments in the space of six hundred yards, and could examine them quite at my ease, for I had not by my side any of those impatient companions who always think they have seen enough, and are constantly pressing you to go to some other object, nor had I in my ears the beating of drums as a signal to muster, or to march, nor Arabs nor peasants to torment me; I was alone in full leisure, and could make my drawings without interruption. This was my sixth visit to Philöe; the five first I had employed in taking views of the shores of the vicinity.

'As soon as I could set foot in the island, I began first by going over all the inner part, to take a general survey of the various monuments, and to form a kind of topographical chart containing the island, the course of the river, and the adjacent characteristic scenery. I found a convincing proof that this group of monuments had been constructed at different periods, by several nations, and had belonged to different forms of religious worship; and the union of these various edifices, each of them in itself regular, and crowded together in this narrow spot, formed an irregular group of most picturesque and magnificent objects.

objects. I could here distinguish eight sanctuaries or separate temples, of different dimensions, built at various times, and the limits of each had been respected in the construction of the succeeding ones, which had impaired the regularity of the whole.'—[*Aikin.*]

'This island of Philöe (or Philœ) lies north-east and south-west, in an elbow of the river; it is about three hundred toises long by one hundred and twenty wide. It is almost entirely covered with edifices. The south-west of its upper part is occupied by a fine and very picturesque rock, the sterile and wild aspect of which seems to add to its magnificence, and set off the regular lines of the architecture of its temples.

'That of these temples which must be esteemed the principal, and a general idea of which has already been given, is of the peripterous class. The capitals are surmounted by a quadruple head of Isis. Adjoining, is a gallery, two hundred and fifty French feet in length, with well sculptured columns, almost all the capitals of which differ from each other. A large and magnificent door of the temple is flanked by two moles in talus, each of forty-seven feet in width, and twenty-two in thickness: these are bordered by a torus, and surmounted by a gorge. The pannels are covered with two ranks of gigantic hieroglyphics, already described. One of four figures of priests which are on the back of the edifice, carries a bark, in which is an emblem similar to that in the *low*-relief on the temple of Elephantina. On the two sides of the door there have been small obelisks in granite, of the height of eighteen feet, covered with hieroglyphics, very chastely sculptured; and before these were two sphinxes of seven feet in length, all of which are prostrate.

'Another court of eighty feet in length, by forty-five in width, is flanked by two columniated galleries, behind which, on the right, is a series of cells of ten feet in depth, and on the left, a private edifice, composed of two porticoes, and three chambers of various dimensions, communicating with each other, and opening into the porticoes. This is the only edifice of the kind which M. Denon ever met with in Egypt; it had more light than usual; it might have been believed to have been a principal apartment; its execution was very elaborate, and its effect highly picturesque. The smallest of the sanctuaries is supported, in a similar manner, by two other moles in talus, of a size one third of that of the former.

'Before the enclosed part of the temple there is an open portico, decorated with ten columns and eight pilasters of four feet diameter, as magnificent as elegant; the columns and the walls are covered with hieroglyphical pictures, sculptured on the mass, finished with stucco, and painted. The portico, and the covered parts of the top are sculptured and painted with astronomical pictures, or with white stars upon a blue ground. The aperture produces a fine light, and one of the most beautiful architectural effects: an exact picture, executed in the natural colours, would be as striking and as agreeable as it would be novel and curious; the relief of the architecture and sculpture giving shadows to the flat tints of the painting, completes its projections; it assumes a harmony and magnificence which excites astonishment.

'To

'To this portico succeeds a temple of sixty feet in depth by thirty in width, divided lengthwise into four chambers, communicating by four doors, successively diminishing in height; the first seven feet by four, the second six by four, the third five by six, and the fourth four by eight. It is very difficult to form an idea of the use of these chambers, which are at once very long, very lofty, very narrow, very rich, and very dark. In the furthermost, there is still an altar or a pedestal, overturned, and, in the left corner, a sort of tabernacle or monolite temple, bearing, as a decoration, the door of a temple of seven feet in height by three in width, and two feet eight inches in depth, of a single block of granite. There are still in the stone the holes in which were inserted the hinges of the door, which was three feet in height by one foot six inches in width: a similar tabernacle is in another chamber.

'These tabernacles were doubtlessly destined to enclose, either the most valuable furniture of the temple, or the emblem of the god itself: in this case, the emblem could only be a reptile or bird, and the door must have been a grate, to give air to the animal, if it were a living one. M. Denon has subsequently found, upon the clothing of a mummy which has long been in the library of the French academy, and which has since past into that of the Institute, the representation of one of these little temples, with a door grated and shut, another with the door open, a bird within the temple, and a man giving it food, and another, in which the keeper of the birds is watching them while they take the air: a discovery which appears to leave no doubt as to the use of these monolite sanctuaries.

'After this series of edifices, the most considerable is the long square portico, of sixty-four feet by forty-four, with four columns in front, and five on the side. This edifice has never been finished. Its capitals are the most ingeniously composed, and the best executed, of any M. Denon saw in Egypt. The lotus is entwined with infinite grace among the volutes of the Iönic and Composite capital. The otus is the ornament which prevails throughout this edifice.

'To the south of the island, its soil is cultivated and abundant. To the north, is another island, much larger than Philoë, and beset with rocks of granite; in a valley, among some palm-trees, is a sanctuary in a very ruinous condition: four columns, with very elegant capitals, form its portico.' [*Kendal.*]

A map of the island, with the sites of the public edifices, is subjoined *.

We promised our readers a battle-piece; and M. Denon now presents us with one which exhibits an action sufficiently critical and bloody to interest the most languid curiosity. The Meccans had captured the French flotilla on the Nile, and had thus furnished themselves and the Mamelukes with artillery. This accession of strength emboldened them to venture on the

* This should be compared with Norden's map.

battle of Benhute, which was fought on both sides with the most desperate courage:

'Having dislodged the infantry of our enemy from the second village, we came to a small plain before Benhute, where we knew that the greater body of the enemy was entrenched, and to which all the fugitives had retired. We expected to have a bloody battle, but not to be cannonaded in form by a battery which fired both grape and bullets, which reached our square, and even went beyond us. I now saw death close at my side; in the short time of ten minutes that we stopped, three persons were killed whilst I was speaking to them. I dared no longer to speak to any one, for the last was struck by a ball, which we both saw coming up ploughing the ground before it, and appearing to be almost spent. My friend lifted up his foot to let it pass him, when a sudden leap of the ball struck him on the heel, and tore the muscles of his leg, making a wound which the next day proved fatal to this young officer, as we wanted the necessary instruments for amputation.

'We fancied that, according to the custom of the country, their ammounted pieces were capable but of one direction: we were, however, not a little surprised, on perceiving that their balls followed our movements, so as to oblige us to quicken our pace in posting ourselves in front of the village, where we maintained the action, while the carabiniers and chasseurs proceeded to turn their battery, and to carry it at the bayonet's point. The moment the drums beat to charge, the Mamelukes came forward to the attack of our carabiniers, who, after having received them with a discharge of musketry, by which they were repulsed, stormed and carried the battery, making a general massacre of all those who served the guns. These guns were French; and were found on inspection to have belonged to the *Italie*, the commodore's bark of our flotilla. We were in hopes that after this important capture the battle would terminate, by the dispersion or flight of the army of Meccans: a part of this army, however, maintained its ground for a considerable time in a small grove of palm-trees; while the other part, which was still more numerous, made a kind of retreat, which we dared not harass, since, whenever we passed beyond the thickets and enclosed grounds to make a rapid movement, the Mamelukes, by whom we were constantly flanked, had it in their power to attack and drive us back. It was therefore necessary to march in order of battle, and with the troops formed to receive them. During six hours we had been unceasingly engaged with an enemy, undisciplined it is true, but brave, fanatic, and of tenfold our number, who attacked with fury and made an obstinate resistance, never retreating unless in a body, insomuch that it became necessary to cut off in detail the detachments as they advanced. Worn out, and panting with the extreme heat, we stopped a moment to take breath. We were utterly destitute of water, of which we never had stood so much in need. I recollect finding, in the heat of the action, a jug of water at the extremity of a wall, and that, not having time to drink, I poured the water on my bosom, to allay the burning heat by which I was tormented.

'So long as our enemies kept possession of their batteries, they retreated confidently, having fresh supplies of men on whom to depend. We were then of opinion that it was their intention to bring us, by a feigned retreat, within the reach of these batteries. But when they had lost them, we considered that, as the small wood to which they had retreated was become their last and only point of defence, they would either try the chance of a decisive action, or would swim across the Nile, or, lastly, would join the Mamelukes, and disappear with them, which it was impossible for us to prevent. On drawing near to the wood, we perceived, however, that it contained a large village, with a fortress belonging to the Mamelukes, provided with bastions and battlements, the approach to which was rendered still more difficult, as the enemy were provided with arms and ammunition of every description, which we found to have belonged to us, both by the distance the balls were sent, and by the balls themselves. We were employed for upwards of two hours in attacking this fortress on every side, without being able to find any point from which the enemy did not assail us successfully. We had sixty men killed, and as many wounded. On the approach of night we set fire to the houses in the vicinity, took possession of a mosque, cut off the enemy's retreat by the Nile, and endeavoured to mount afresh the guns we had recaptured.'—

'At day-break we began to batter the fortress with a view of making a breach: as it was, however, constructed of unbaked bricks, each bullet simply made a hole, without bringing down any part of the building. The flames at the same time made no progress on account of the court-yards which separated the principal building from the circumvallation. At nine in the morning the Mamelukes advanced with their camels, as if with a view to throw succours into the place. A party was sent out against them, and they retreated after a slight resistance. General Beliard, perceiving that the result of the palliative means which had hitherto been employed had been a loss of time and of men, gave orders for an assault, which was given and received with unexampled valour. The first circumvallation was opened under the enemy's fire; and, notwithstanding the incessant discharges of musketry of the besieged, by whom a sortie was made, combustible matters were introduced which annoyed them in their retreat. One of their magazines blew up, and the flames extended themselves in every direction. As they were without water, they extinguished the fire with their feet and hands, and even endeavoured to smother it by throwing themselves on it. They were seen, black and naked, running through the flames, and resembling so many devils in hell: I could not view them without an emotion of horror blended with admiration. Intervals of tranquillity succeeded, during which a solitary voice was heard, which was answered by sacred hymns and warlike shouts. They then rushed on us from all sides, notwithstanding the certainty of death.

'Towards the close of the evening we stormed; and this operation was long and terrible. Twice we penetrated into the interior of the fortress, and twice we were driven from thence. I was not so much terrified by the losses we sustained, as by the reflection, that

we had fresh efforts to make against an enemy whom we could not intimidate. I knew besides, that we were reduced to our last box of cartridges.'—

'Painful duties succeeded to the dangers of the combat. We heard the cries of the wounded, to whom we had no remedies to administer, and on whom we could not perform the most urgent operations for want of instruments. Our losses in men had been very considerable, and we had still many enemies to subdue. The necessity of sparing our gallant troops made us substitute to an attack by storm the expedient of setting fire to the enemy's buildings. For this purpose two fires were kindled; posts were stationed at all the avenues; and these posts were relieved from time to time to render the duty less severe.'

'At day break our troops entered by the breaches the fire had made, and put to the sword those who, notwithstanding they were half roasted alive, still offered a resistance One of them, who appeared to be a chief, was brought to the general. He was in so swollen a state, that in endeavouring to stoop to seat himself, his skin cracked in every part. "If," said he, "I am brought hither to be killed, I beg that you will hasten to put me out of my misery." He was accompanied by a slave, who regarded his master with so deep an expression of grief, that I felt an esteem both for one and the other. The dangers by which this slave was surrounded could not draw aside for a moment his affectionate concern for his master. He lived for him alone: he viewed him; and could see no other object. What looks! how tender and how deep a melancholy! How good must he have been, who was thus cherished by his slave! However deplorable his lot, I could not help envying him who was thus beloved.' [*Aikin.*]

The ruins of Kous, of the temples of Karnac, Luxor, &c. engage our traveller's attention, but we must pass them with as much rapidity as if we ourselves had Murad-Bey at our heels.

M. Denon, returning in haste through Thebes, thus expresses himself respecting the extent of the ground covered by the remains of antient edifices, and their original use:

'I had not time to measure by rule the extent of ground occupied by these buildings, but I found repeatedly that twenty-five minutes were required to encompass them on full trot. The passage through the circumvallation or exterior wall was by six gates that yet remain, three of which were preceded by avenues of sphinxes: within the circuit was contained not only the great temple, but three others entirely distinct from it, having each its own gates, porticoes, courts, avenues, and boundary wall.—What was their use? Were they temples or palaces? Were their sovereigns lodged in the porticoes of the temples, or were their palaces similar in construction to the sacred edifices; or, perhaps, from their superior lightness, unable to resist the injuries of time? It is at least obvious, that if they did really inhabit these buildings, which from their distribution may be

regarded as dependencies of the great temple, their accommodations were by no means to be envied. Large courts with open galleries, and porticoes formed by narrow intercolumniations, could not be very pleasant to live in: the few chambers that there are, of small dimensions, destitute of air and light, and covered with pious allegories, were but little calculated to attract the eye or please the imagination. Another objection is, that some of these dark chambers contained little tabernacles, in which. no doubt, were inclosed either the figure of the divinity or the particular animal emblematical of it, or the sacred treasure; and to any of these none but the priests would be admitted. Probably, therefore, the vast circuit of these buildings was occupied by numerous colleges of priests, the depositories of the science, the power, and the influence of the country.' [*Aikin.*]

Revisiting Tintyra, and taking possession of the great temple in all the plenitude of repose and quiet, with a guard of thirty men, M. Denon employed himself in copying the hieroglyphics, which are here exhibited in several plates. In one of these we find the delineation of an antient zodiac, which indicates the Chaldaic origin of Egyptian science.

'The following are among the hieroglyphics on this temple: a sculpture in the little temple which is behind the greater, represents a figure that appears to bear a club, on which is a serpent, and which appears ready to crush the little Orus, who is succoured by the emblem of Isis, the horns of a cow, the measure of the Nile, signifying the inundation, which saves the earth from the attempts of Typhon, that is, the wind of the desert: on the walls of the great temple, one of the two thousand sculptures represents Orus offering an oblation to Isis and Osiris, or the earth returning thanks for the benefactions of the heavens: on the portico, is a sculptured temple with a pediment; it has been said that, on account of the general absence of rain in Egypt, no pitched roofs have belonged to the architecture of that country; the representation of this pedimented temple is held by a person who is in the act of making an offering: this therefore was a votive temple, an Egyptian temple, as may be judged from its door, and possibly one erected in a country remote from Egypt: with respect to the fourteen barks bearing fourteen balls or disks, it is possible that they signify the lunar months: the number fourteen was consecrated: on the frize of the door which is under the portico of Apollinopolis Magna, at Edfù, there are fourteen divinities, ready to ascend fourteen empty steps which terminate at an astronomical sign, consisting of an eye on the prow of a vessel in the disk of the moon, sustained by a prop terminating in a flower of the lotus, behind which is a little divinity; the same number of steps, the same number of divinities, the same sign, and the same little god are sculptured on each extremity of the cieling of the portico of Tintyra, and on the steps of the stairs, which ascend from the plat-form of the cella to the platform of the portico: in the low-relief of Apollinopolis the figures have their legs engaged; in that of Tintyra they are alternately the figures of men, and the figures of women: in the picture which occupies one half of the cieling of the third chamber of the apartment

which is on the top of the great temple, are three figures of women, which, in a singular manner, stretch out their arms to reach a little figure of Osiris; from the arms which proceed from their brain, it appears that the Egyptians had conventional signs by which they expressed certain things, and to which they made the most sacred laws of nature and of art subservient; that the state of the arts among them must not be judged of from their emblematic figures; that they had an art apart, but that it was held within limits, and bound to consecrated purposes, by rules exceedingly severe; whence it has happened that their productions of unconfined genius are so rare, that, before the French expedition, it was not known that they existed: on the cieling of the chamber parallel to that which contains the zodiac, is a picture containing the figure of a woman of thirty feet in height, and which possibly represents the year, a conjecture which is supported by the figures on her arms and her body; here is a globe with legs, which may signify the course of the earth, and the revolution of the year; the same globe passing from the figure of the sun to another figure may be the earth between day and night; a bent figure in a globe between a man and a woman may be that of the earth, which presents one side to the day, while it presents the contrary to night, and the man and woman may be Osiris and Isis, who superintend and regulate its movements; but all this is conjecture, the whole may be something very different: the writing which is about it, once understood, would probably discover the truth: beneath the woman is a figure which turns its feet over its head, and that possibly signifies the earth, which turns on its own axis; on each extended hand of this figure is a disk, containing the figure of Osiris, or the sun at the tropics, approaching each pole in the progress of the year; and from the figure project rays, bearing divisions of the year, and its influences on the earth; in fact, a sort of almanac.

'It is very difficult to conceive the purpose of this little apartment, the cielings of the several chambers of which we have just described: it may have been an oratory, an observatory, a sanctuary, or a place of residence: to judge from the subjects with which it is sculptured, it might be believed to have been a place of study, sacred to astronomy, or, perhaps it was wholly devoted to the sepulture of some illustrious personage, decorated with the discoveries which resulted from the studies of his life: it is entered by a little door, which opens into an apartment without a cover, and which has the appearance of an enclosed court, adorned with the same labour as the other parts; against the lateral wall of the right chamber is represented a couched mummy, under which is a long inscription; a door from the court enters into the chamber on the cieling of which is the planisphere, and which is illuminated by two large casement windows; the adjoining chamber is almost entirely dark, receiving light only by its door, which opens from the first chamber.' [*Kendal.*]

In traversing the tombs of the kings of Thebes, the author was not only gratified by a sight of the beautiful paintings and sculptures within them, but had the singular felicity of discovering an antient manuscript in the covering of a mummy.

Having

Having observed figures on the walls in the act of writing, he says;

'The Egyptians, it appears then, had books; the famous *toth* then, was a book, and not pannels of inscriptions, sculptured upon walls, as it has hitherto remained in question. I could not forbear to flatter myself with the thought that I was the first who had made this important discovery; but much more when, a few hours after, I was furnished with the proof of my discovery by the possession of a manuscript itself, which I found in the hand of a superb mummy which was brought me: he must be highly inquisitive, an amateur, and a traveller, who can appreciate the whole extent of such an enjoyment. I felt that I turned pale; I was disposed to quarrel with those who, in spite of my intreaties, had violated the integrity of this mummy, when I perceived, in its right hand, and under its left arm, the manuscript roll of papyrus which, but for this violation, I should never have seen: my voice failed me; I blessed the avarice of the Arabs, and still more the accident that had procured me this good fortune; so great was my fear of destroying it, that I knew not what to do with my treasure; I was afraid to touch this book, the most antient of books at this day known; I dared confide it to no person, deposit it no where; all the cotton of the quilt that served me for a bed did not seem sufficient to embalm it with sufficient softness.' [*Kendal.*]

To the plate giving a fac-simile of the MS., the following remarks are subjoined:

'The first observation which we shall make upon this relic of antiquity is, that the papyrus on which it is written is prepared in the same way as that of the Greeks and Romans; that is to say, of two layers of the medulla of this plant glued to each other, with the fibres made to cross, to give more consistence to the leaf. It may also be seen that the writing goes from right to left, beginning at the top of the page.

'The design here given is an offering made by a priest to Isis in the form of a cow; her udder is very apparent; she is dressed like the human figures representing this deity, and has a kind of yoke about her neck, which I have also met with around the god Apis, in an historical bas-relief in the temple of Medinet Abu, at Thebes. The raised frame before the figure of Isis in the present subject is perhaps an altar, and both are standing on a kind of portico, beneath which, a mummy reclining forms a figure like that which I have conjectured to be Nature in a dormant state. Above the cow is a disk, whence a serpent is descending; the priest is clothed in a white striped tunic, which covers his body from his loins down to the mid-leg; it is fastened by straps, passing round his right shoulder, which otherwise is as naked as his arms; on his head he has a close-fitting cap, which looks somewhat like a helmet, and is rounded off at the ears, leaving them bare: he holds in his hand a vase, containing two species of flowers, which I have often seen without being able to make out what they are. Above the figures is an inscription composed of seven vertical and four horizontal lines: the writing is here different from the rest of the manuscript, of which this is a part, and the cha-

racters appear to be infinitely varied and numerous; some of the emblematical figures, met with in other places, may be here distinguished, such as the serpent, the eye, and birds; but these are mixed with others that seem to be purely conventional, and exhibit no kind of image.

'In copying the whole manuscript I have found the return of entire phrases, and particular characters, so often repeated, that they can be only articles, conjunctions, or auxiliary verbs: from these, it would be easy for those persons who devote themselves to this kind of study, to compose alphabets, or groups of words, which may assist in the general explanation; and a single one of these manuscripts would furnish the whole of the set of characters, if each character only expressed a single letter.

'This manuscript belongs to the First Consul, who has been pleased to allow me the use of it.' [*Aikin.*]

Shortly after this discovery, M. Denon justifies a little address which he employed to effect some delay, by telling us '*that he was going to quit Egypt for ever:*' but it does not appear that he had *then* any knowlege of the scheme of Bonaparte's return to Europe. He soon, however, bends his course towards Cairo; whence he proceeds, after the defeat of the Turkish army at Aboukir, to Alexandria; embarks for Europe with Bonaparte; and arrives safely at Frejus. The travels thus conclude:

'Here terminates my journal; but the reader must bear with me a little longer, while I make a concluding observation on the form and object of this work.

'When I quitted Alexandria, the members of the Institute were yet at Cairo; and on my arrival in France, I was not certain whether they would be able to accomplish their journey into Upper Egypt, as Bonaparte had ordered before his departure: the events of war might have interrupted the progress of that learned society, or at least prevent them from sending to France the valuable fruits of their labours: in that case I should have been the only one qualified to write on that country, especially as I had made a great multitude of drawings, which exhibited, not only the face of the country, but often represented some of the most interesting expeditions of the war. I could not, therefore, without a kind of injustice, deprive my fellow-citizens of the copious fruits of my researches, and my laborious travels, so I resolved to publish them.

'I then thought it proper to add to my journal a few critical digressions on the antiquities, and some remarks on the travellers who had preceded me, and with this intention I had requested some men of learning to supply notes to the most interesting of the objects which I had made drawings of; but no sooner had I been informed that the Institute of Cairo had accomplished their journey in the calm of peace; that the members had known no bounds to their ardent research, except the limits assigned by the chief of division, who accompanied them; that they had returned, loaden with an immense booty; and that the government, after having protected their jour-

ney,

ney, had resolved, with its accustomed munificence, to defray the expence of publishing a collection so valuable in every respect; I no longer thought of adhering to a plan that others would necessarily execute much better than myself. Reduced to my own feeble means, how could I presume to measure my labours with those of a whole society, to publish hypotheses where they will present certainty? I have, therefore, struck out from my journal all that I had there hazarded of critical research; I have resumed my light infantry uniform, and my post in the advanced guard, reserving for myself only the claim of having picketed out a path for those who were to follow; and thus, even by my errors, be of some use to the editors of the great work.

'For my own part, I shall esteem myself happy, if, by my zeal and enthusiasm, I have succeeded in giving my readers an idea of a country so important in itself, and in the various recollections that are associated with it; if I have been able to pourtray with accuracy, its characteristic forms, colour, and general appearance; and if, as an eye-witness, I have described with interest the details of an extended and singular campaign, which formed a prominent feature in the vast conception of this celebrated expedition; if I have attained this object, I shall be indebted for it to the advantage of describing and delineating every thing immediately from nature.' [*Aikin.*]

From this account, it is evident that the French made no discovery of any new stupendous monument of antient art in Egypt; and that they did not advance up the Nile so far as former travellers have penetrated. Though Norden passed not quite twelve months in Egypt, during which he was detained nearly four months at Cairo by illness, he extended his researches and made charts of the Nile as far as Derri in Nubia, where insurmountable obstacles arrested his progress. In general, Denon confirms the accounts of Pocock and Norden; and having more opportunities for minute examination in some places, he has added to their details. He has not, however, stated our obligations to other travellers, but, with a French flourish, speaks of himself as 'engaged in travelling through a country which was *known to Europe by name only.*' He has omitted also to quote the numerous passages in antient authors, which relate to the same objects which he describes.

With respect to the merits of the two translations before us, the palm certainly belongs to Mr. Aikin; who, notwithstanding many marks of haste, has performed his task with much more fidelity and elegance than Mr. Kendal. The object of the latter being cheapness, he has copied very few and none of the most material plates which enrich the original work, and which constitute its grand characteristic; though, as he was unwilling that his readers should lose the explanations which are subjoined to the plates of Denon, he has interwoven them with the narrative. So far, this was judicious: but we think

that

that he should have preserved the original form of the journal, and not have exhibited the author, in his own work, in the third person.—Mr. Aikin allows M. Denon to speak throughout in the first person, has copied most of the plates, and has given the explanations at the end, as in the original. The only liberties which he has taken consist in breaking the narrative into chapters and subjoining head-titles for the benefit of easy consultation, for which we give him our thanks.

In a few instances, Mr. Kendal may have been more happy than Mr. Aikin, but his inferiority must be manifest by a general comparison. Not being an artist, he talks of *ranks* of columns, of the *coating* instead of the *facing* of a pyramid, and renders bas-relief *low*-relief, while the word *chambranles* (frames) remains untranslated. In the account of the sitting statues, the passage which Mr. Aikin has written, 'a severity of style and a straitness of position;' Mr. K. has translated 'the style was rugged as the attitude was correct.' He also abounds in inelegancies and vulgarisms: he talks of night-fall, of *amunition*, of famishing the country, of animals following by *parcels*, of a *mortis*, of a large number of *moes*, of perquisitions, of free-stone which has the *equality* (he means *smoothness*) of marble, of *monolite* (monolithic) temples, of destruction having taken place *at* the hands of man, of *most nicest* distinctions, &c. &c.

The dissonances of the two translations are not only such as respect style and decoration: we find the difference of a day in the dates of the journal; where one translates *four miles*, the other has *two leagues*; where one has *twenty*, the other has *thirty* men; what Mr. K. renders *the wall of the city*, Mr. A. translates *the old woman's wall*; and the words which the former translates *gills* and *reeds*, the latter renders *ear-holes* and *rushes*, &c.—Mr. K.'s historical account of the Invasion of Egypt by the French, and his Illustration of the Map of Upper and Lower Egypt, are useful additions to the French work.

The splendid original publication of M. Denon consists of an immense folio, containing upwards of three hundred pages of letter-press, and a separate volume consisting of one hundred and forty-one plates, beautifully engraven.

May

ART. XII. *Some Account of the Cathedral Church of Durham:* illustrative of the Plans, Elevations, and Sections of that Building. Imperial Folio. 5l. 5s. in Sheets. White, Robson, &c.

ON former occasions, we have so fully expressed our approbation of the plan here prosecuted by the Society of Antiquaries, that, were we now to offer any praise on the general merit of the magnificent undertaking of which the publication

before

before us forms the 4th Number of the Series, we should unnecessarily repeat our observations. We shall therefore content ourselves with referring to our review of the accounts of St. Stephen's Chapel, of Exeter and of Bath Cathedral Churches, (see M. R. vol. xx. p. 130, vol. xxxii. p. 421.—p. 426, N. S.) and proceed to notice the historical and explanatory remarks prefixed to the beautiful plates, containing the plans, elevations, and sections of the noble Cathedral of Durham.

The author of the prefatory account considers the style of building adopted by the Norman conquerors, as a species of architecture which may properly be denominated national; hence he wishes to discard the word *Gothic*, as applied to the Architecture of England from the thirteenth to the sixteenth century, and proposes to substitute in its room the more appropriate term of *English*. All who are acquainted with the subject must admit the propriety of such a substitution: but, when words have been sanctioned by long use, it is difficult to make them give place to others, though more accurate and significant. The Italians, as it is here remarked, applied the expression of "*la maniera gotica*" in contempt to all the works of art of the middle ages; and Sir Christopher Wren, borrowing the epithet from them, gave it general currency among his countrymen. It is now so generally employed, when speaking of the style of architecture prevailing in all our venerable sacred structures, that the word *gothic* seems likely to maintain its ground; though the beauty and striking effect of the edifices constructed in this style as much prevent us from using it in contempt, as our knowlege of its origin secures us from attributing it to the Goths.

Some have supposed that this mode of building is *Saracenic*, and that the mad project of the crusade contributed to our improvement in architecture. Conjecture will be applied in default of positive testimony; and, as the writers of the age in which our most noble religious edifices were erected have left us, in a great measure, in the dark respecting the history of this branch of the arts, various opinions will be formed respecting its source. 'There is very little doubt, (we are here told in a note,) that the light and elegant style of building, whose principal and characteristic feature is the high pointed arch struck from two centres, was invented in this country.' The testimony of other countries, indeed, of which the national traditions ascribe their most beautiful churches to English artists, gives weight to the assertion; and certain it is that this style was here brought to the highest state of perfection.

A great taste for building was introduced into and universally prevailed in this island under the Norman dynasty, of which we

have at this day the most ample proofs. 'We cannot without wonder consider the immense buildings, both ecclesiastical and civil, erected in this country, within a century and an half after the Norman conquest; and it is no exaggeration to assert that the aggregate of Cathedrals, Abbeys and Castles, raised in England in that period, far exceeds the mass of public edifices erected in any country whatever within the same time, since the fall of the Roman Empire.'

Soon after the conquest, the foundations of the Cathedral of Durham were laid. Bishop William de Carilepho began the building in the reign of William Rufus, and it was continued, if not finished, by his successor Ranulf Flambard; whose talents for architecture had been previously evinced by the erection of the collegiate church of Christchurch, Hants. The form of this Cathedral, constructed in the most massive style of Norman architecture, was a long cross, with two turrets at the west end, and between them a large and richly ornamented arched door; the eastern end probably terminating in a semicircular form. 'The side ailes, both of the nave and choir, were vaulted with semicircular arches, groined, and the ribs of the groins carved; but the nave and choir were open to the timber roof.'

Additions were made to the original church under subsequent bishops: but it still remains a perfect specimen of Norman architecture; and by the improvements which it underwent, we are at length presented with 'a most instructive series of examples, illustrative of the gradual change of style which took place during the reigns of the first three Henrys, till by degrees the pointed arch had completely superseded the semicircle; and the heavy clusters of the Norman pillars had been polished into the light shafts of the early English.'

After these general observations, the account proceeds to state the several additions and improvements, in the order in which they took place. The first addition made to the original church was the western chapel, called the Galilee; the second was the chapel at the east end, named the Chapel of the Nine Altars: but, as we cannot minutely follow the author in his history of this Cathedral, we shall avail ourselves, for the sake of our readers, of the table at the end of the article, giving at one view the dates of the different parts of the church, as far as they can with any probability be ascertained; together with the names of the Bishops, &c. to whom the several works are ascribed. The authorities of Godwin and Hutchinson have been followed.

'William

		A.D.	Bishops.	
William I.	15	1080	Wm. de St. Carileph	Began the Cathedral in 1093.
William II.	13	1099	Ranulf Flambard	Finished the wall, and transferred St. Cuthbert.
Henry I.	34	1133	Galfrid Rufus	Built the Chapter House.
Stephen	19	1153	Hugh Pudsey	Built the Galilee.
Henry III.	12	1228	Richard Poore	Vaulted the Nave and began the Nine Altars.
	25	1241	Nicholas Farnham	Continued the work and built the Lantern.
	34	1249	Walter Kirkham	Built the Belfry.
Edward I.	12	1283	Anthony Beak	Vaulted the Choir. Built the Vestry.
Edward III.	19	1345	Thomas Hatfield	Made Great West Window and North Transept ditto.
Richard II.	4	1381	John Fordham,	Finished the Altar-screen.
	11	1388	Walter Skyrlaw	Built the Cloisters. Repaired the Galilee.
Henry IV.	7	1406	Thomas Langley	
Henry VII.	10	1494	Richard Fox	Restored the North Window.

Some of the Priors assisted in these holy works, but we have been obliged to omit their names.

Protestantism was not propitious to the magnificence and splendour which this Cathedral derived from the zeal of its successive Catholic bishops. The Reformation robbed it of its shrines: in Elizabeth's reign, its monuments were defaced by Dean Wittingham, a rigid Calvinist; and under the Protectorate, it suffered much: but it seems to have been most injured, externally at least, by repairs conducted without judgment or taste. Whether owing to the funds for its sustentation being now found to be insufficient, or whether it be thought unnecessary to uphold every part of this immense pile, we know not: but we are informed of schemes of demolition. Should these diminutions be carried into effect, against which as admirers of our sacred edifices we protest, we have only to hope that they may be executed under the direction of architects distinguished for their knowlege of what is called the Gothic style.

The plates exhibit,—I. A large Plan of the Cathedral Church at Durham, and the Site of the adjoining buildings. II. Elevation of the West Front. III. Elevation of the North Door. IV. Section of the Cathedral from East to West, presenting the South Side. V. Elevation to a larger Scale of the First and Second Divisions, from the Great Centre Tower, of the South Side of the Nave of the Cathedral. VI. Elevation to a larger Scale of the Second and Third Divisions from the North End of the Chapel of the Nine Altars, as it appeared in 1795. VII. Elevation of the Episcopal Throne and Monument of Thomas Hatfield, situated on the South Side of the Choir of the Cathedral, as it appeared in 1795. VIII. Elevation of the Eastern Front of the Screen of the High Altar. IX. Elevation of two Doors in the Cathedral, with their Plans. X. Parts of the Cathedral and its Dependencies on a large Scale.—To the whole

whole is prefixed an engraved title page;—and all the plates are engraven by Basire from Drawings made by Mr. John Carter.

In giving the Elevations of this Cathedral, Mr. Carter has not uniformly copied its present appearance, which in some instances has been injudiciously modernized, but has restored the antient architecture, by the help of some old engravings; thus doing justice to the original design, and making his work a faithful delineation of the English style during the successive periods of its erection.

Mo-y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For NOVEMBER, 1802.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 13. *The British Parnassus*, at the Close of the 18th Century; A Poem in Four Cantos. By Alexander Thomson, Author of *Whist, the Paradise of Taste*, &c. 4to. 4s. sewed. Longman and Co.

IN this species of burlesque composition, the author considers himself as intitled to great latitude in the expressions and rhymes. According to our opinion, he is not intitled to more than he has taken: but, as he apprizes his readers of this circumstance, it will be scarcely necessary for us to trouble them with many examples. The plan of the work is to enumerate, in terms of appropriate commendation, the names and productions of our poets from the days of Dryden to those of Peter Pindar and his contemporaries.—As we have had several occasions of giving our sentiments on the productions of Mr. Thomson *, we shall now merely select a specimen from his *Parnassus*, in which the reader will see Peter Pindar's merits decided, and at the first bracket will observe an instance of the *liberty* of the Versification:

'Let all the gay Trophies we thus have survey'd,
Be now put together; then let them be weigh'd
In the opposite scale with your old Comic feast,
Which if they outweigh not, they'll balance at least.

'From Comedy's Hall is an easy transition,
To the Closet of Satire, and GARTH the Physician;
For on him, and the Medical Squib which he penn'd,
Your cause in this quarter seems all to depend;
Whilst I, for one single unseconded thing,
A number of capital pieces can bring.

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* See M. R. vol. xxxiii. N. S. p. 149.

'It

'It is true, that the interval now is so long *,
Since the BLUNDERHEADS figur'd in ANSTEY's gay Song,
Since the pleasures of BATH with such spirit he sung,
And the numbers so merrily danc'd on his tongue,
Since which he has ventur'd no second display,
That he scarcely belongs to the Corps of To-day.

'But have you not him, who (perhaps on a Monday),
Long ago gave a treat of his nice SALMAGUNDI,
And who lately, on some other day of the week,
Serv'd up TOPSY-TURVY, with BUBBLE AND SQUEAK?

'And have you not PINDAR, that wonderful PETER,
Unparallell'd master of ludicrous metre;
From whose fanciful brain, inexhaustibly strong,
Such torrents have gush'd of Satirical Song?
Whether he, as at first, your Academy enters,
And offers his jeering advice to the Painters;
Or with Ridicule's caustic attempts to reduce
The egotist tumours of BOZZY and BRUCE;
Or, by boiling proof taught, with SIR JOSEPH BANKS sees,
How wide the distinction 'twixt Lobsters and Fleas †;
Or by means of the slender Machine of a Louse,
With murmurs and rage fills a certain Great House;
Or presages MACARTNEY's disgrace and disaster,
At the Court of great CHINA's imperial Master;
Or, beyond all the rest, with unparallell'd glee,
The Royal Visitors gives us to see,
In their progress so sage through WHITBREAD's Brewery ‡.

'You said, and I mean not to prove you a liar,
That FONTAINE in his Tales was not much above PRIOR §;
But PETER's the man, who in arch, comic vein,
And dryness of humour, surpasses FONTAINE;
Nor with so rare a talent his eulogy ends,
But through all composition's wide circle extends.
How rich is that exquisite grace which belongs
To his tender effusions, and amorous songs!
How few are those strains which in Pathos surpass
His mournful lament for the death of his Ass!
What Ode of its size so much fancy displays,
As that which the GLOW-WORM so sweetly pourtrays!

'* The entertaining Letters of the New Bath Guide are dated so early as 1766; another production of the same kind, the Election Ball, belongs also to Anstey; since which the Humorous Muse of that gentleman, to the regret of all his readers, has been totally silent.'

'† His piece on this subject concludes with the following singular truism:

'Fleas are not Lobsters, d——n their souls.'

'‡ Brewery, a Poetical word for a Brewhouse.'

'§ Vide Canto I. 165.'

Or

Or who but a dull and insensible Vandal,
Admires not the lofty address to his Candle?
I deem, that since SHAKSPEARE you have not possess'd
Such a Bard, by the whole of the Muses caress'd;
A writer like PINDAR, whose versatile wit
Such opposite subjects can equally fit,
And who clothes in the same easy mantle of Rhyme,
Both the lowest of Fun and the highest sublime:
But these talents, alas! upon themes of a day,
Too often by far have been quite thrown away.
Awake, thou great Spirit, and leave meaner things *,
With such perishing objects as Painters and Kings;
Learn at last, for the sake of true Poetry's cause,
To despise present profit, and present applause;
Let Int'rest no more, with its grovelling force,
Be the Pole-star that guides thy poetical course;
But before Age arrive to extinguish thy fire,
Let some noble subject resound from thy Lyre;
Nor foolishly trust, for thy whole reputation,
To structures thus built on a sandy foundation,
Which will soon stand in need of complete Annotation.'

Mr. T. again makes his appearance, in the next article. Man.

Art. 14. *Sonnets, Odes, and Elegies.* By Alexander Thomson, Crown 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies.

This prolific author may be justly allowed to possess a talent for versification. The productions of his muse are numerous, and his lines are generally smooth and easy. Often, indeed, by a slight transposition, they would relapse into prose; while on the contrary true poetry will always retain its native force and beauty, even when the charms of measure are withdrawn.—We do not wish to insinuate that there is no poetry in this volume: but, if we freely speak our opinion, we esteem the sentiments more than the poetry. Some expressions occur, which require to be revised, although we shall not trouble our readers by pointing them out; and in other places we observe a promiscuous use of *thee* and *you*, which, though examples may be found in our poets, must never be allowed. We give one sonnet as a specimen of the whole:

'Why should our little life be vainly spent,
In all the vile pursuits of sordid gain;
Since Indian treasures cannot yield content,
Nor regal pow'r the flight of Time restrain?

'For ends of higher aim were mortals sent,
To pace a while this weary world of pain;
And souls like theirs, on nobler objects bent,
Should all such vulgar, mean pursuits disdain.

" * Awake, my St. John, leave all meaner things,
To low Ambition, and the pride of Kings."

'Their

' Their task should be, to brave Temptation's pow'r,
And all his fierce assaults to render vain;
To stand, unmov'd, Affliction's evil hour,
And still with patient heart his rage sustain:
To trace each path where praise or virtue lies,
And fit their souls at last for commerce with the skies!' J. Man.

Art. 15. *King John, an Historical Tragedy*, altered from Shakspeare, as it was acted at Reading School for the Subscription to the Naval Pillar to be erected in Honor of our Naval Victories. 8vo. 2s. Pridden, &c.

This play, as originally written by Shakspeare, contains undoubtedly many passages which might with propriety be rescinded, or altered; and the editor who would content himself with refining away its dross, and would not with rash hand attempt to polish the lustre and increase the brilliancy of its native gems, would perform no unthankful office. The edition before us, by Dr. Valpy, is executed with considerable taste and judgment; though in some few instances he has substituted one word for another without any apparently sufficient cause; and in the interesting scene between Hubert and Arthur, he has (we think) been guilty of the boldness to which we have alluded. Those parts which bear more immediately the stamp of Shakspeare's genius, though not altogether so perfect as rigid criticism would require, ought to be sacred from the touch of alteration or fancied emendation. In the scene above mentioned, Dr. Valpy has made an addition, which in our opinion does not increase the effect so much as to justify his deviation from the original. Our readers will recollect that, at the conclusion of the first scene of the 4th act, Hubert expresses his reluctance in the following words:

" *Hub.* Well, see to live; I will not touch thine eyes,
For all the treasure that thine uncle owes;
Yet am I sworn; and I did purpose, boy,
With this same very iron to burn them out.
" *Arthur.* O now you look like Hubert; all this while
You were disguised."

The scene, as Dr. Valpy has altered it, stands as follows:

' *Hubert.* Hold thy tongue, boy, or I'll increase thy pain!
Arthur. I will.—O spare me, Hubert, but a moment,
But while I pray to God!—I'll not be loud—
I'll not be heard by you—indeed I need not—
The softest sigh is heard aloud in Heav'n!—
Was it for this I sent my prayers for Hubert?
Hubert. For me!
Arthur. This very hour I pray'd for you.
O if an Angel should have come to me,
And told me Hubert would put out my eyes,
I would not have believ'd him—none but Hubert!
Hubert, (*throwing away the iron.*) I cannot bear this innocence!
Arthur. O Heav'n!
My pray'r is heard—and Hubert is himself!
In his relenting eye his virtue gleams,

And, like my guardian Angel, (*kneeling down and embracing his knees,*) has dispell'd
This dream of death.
Hubert. O raise thee from the earth,
Poor injur'd Prince!—thy looks, thy kind affection,
Have conquer'd, and redeem'd my soul from ruin.' O.W.

Art. 16. *The Second Part of King Henry the Fourth,* altered from Shakspeare, as it was acted at Reading School. Published as it was performed, for the Benefit of the Humane Society. 8vo. 2s. Pridden.

The observations with respect to the plays of Shakspeare, which we have made in the preceding article, apply equally in the present case. Certainly the tragedy of Henry the Fourth, Part 2, which Dr. Valpy has here altered, is not in its original state fit to be read or rehearsed by young persons. The age of Shakspeare was more gross than that in which we live; and hence we find a coarseness and indelicacy in many of his characters, which cannot now be tolerated. In preparing the drama before us, therefore, to be *got up* and exhibited by young gentlemen, it was proper (as Dr. V. suggests in his advertisement) to weed it of all noxious expressions, and to leave in it nothing which should taint the mind of youth. It undoubtedly requires some skill, however, to remove the thorns without carrying away thorns and roses together: but it is not an insurmountable difficulty; and though various critics may have different opinions concerning the several alterations made by Dr. V. they must agree that they generally display taste, and a commendable attention to the cause of virtue.—As to the moral of the story, it is observed that 'the excellent instructions of a dying father to his son, and the reformation of a dissipated Prince, independently of innumerable beauties of style and sentiment, render this play admirably calculated for youth: it is therefore hoped that this attempt will not be unfavourably received or severely criticized.'

In one scene, Dr. V. remarks, a total change has been made in the character of *Falstaff.* Had he yet more abbreviated this character, it might have been still fitter for the *Reading School Theatre.* Moy.

Art. 17. *Folly as it Flies:* A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1802.

The character of this lively but desultory writer's productions is so well known, that it is sufficient to say that the family-likeness is completely preserved in the piece before us. They are calculated for temporary success, and have the same relation to regular plays which a japan-tea-board bears to a picture. The absurd and extravagant manners of the times can alone be pleaded in extenuation of the author's caprices; and he may say, with Young,

"Who can write so fast as men run mad?"

The principal novelty in this play is the character of an advertizing quack, one of those pests who fatten on the credulity of the age: He shall make his appearance before our readers:

'Dr.

'*Dr.* Infallible *sings without.*

'*Malcour.* Heh? What fine Gentleman have we here? Surely I recollect that face.

Enter Dr. Infallible *and* Edward *his Servant.*

Doctor. "Ti di diddle liddle."—What, Mr. Malcour! My old acquaintance, Mr. Malcour!

Malcour. Why, it can't be! You, the half-starved journeyman to the half-starved apothecary, who used to bring me medicines at Gloucester—You Tom Drudgewell!

Doctor. Mum—Not Tom Drudgewell now—Ever read the newspapers? (*taking snuff affectedly.*)

Malcour. Constantly.

Doctor. Recollect Dr. Infallible?

Malcour. To be sure—the fellow's always puffing himself.

Doctor. Be quiet—I'm Doctor Infallible.

Malcour. You!

Doctor. Yes; I'm sole proprietor and ingenious inventor of that immortal medicine, call'd Radix Rheno—to be sold at my own house, price eight shillings and sixpence a bottle, stamp inclusive. N. B. No cure, no pay.—And a lamp over the door, to show the Doctor don't practise in the dark.

Malcour, Bravo! And, pray,—for I forget—what is this Rhadix Rheno a cure for?

Doctor. Every thing—Chirosis, Polypus, Ophondria, Astherea, Dyspepsia, Atrophy, Notophry, and that worst of all disorders, Poverty.

Malcour. So I see,—and that's a complaint I'm acquainted with: But, curse me if ever I heard of the rest.

Doctor. Nor I, 'till I turn'd Quack.

Malcour. What the devil! do you invent these disorders?

Doctor. No—our medicines invent them. We give the remedy, and that gives the disease.

Malcour. Indeed! And don't the town find you out?

Doctor. Cann't—dead men tell no tales.—But, excuse me one instant Edward, take this letter—Compliments to Sir Herbert, and best love to Georgiana. [*Exit* Edward *at Gateway.*

Malcour. To Georgiana! Why, zounds! have you the audacity to aspire———

Doctor. Hush—say nothing—I'll buy her (*taking snuff*). Cupid's a quack medicine, pleasant, pernicious, corrupt, and damn'd expensive—I'll buy her.

Malcour. Ridiculous! Do you suppose Sir Herbert will consent?

Doctor. Not yet—but his wife must have money, and that letter offers him a friendly loan of some thousands you understand—and now come home to dinner.—My chariot there shall take you—look—A carriage makes a Doctor you know *(looking out).*

Malcour. (also looking out). Your carriage! Why, that's a hearse.

Doctor. So it is.—Well, that's also my carriage; for if chariots set the doctors going, dam'me, but the doctors set the hearses going.

Malcour. True; but I must visit an old friend, at that house yonder; so adieu.

Doctor. That! What, that house where the knocker's tied up!—dear delicious sight!—Oh! Turtle to an Alderman—Gold to a miser—a mistress to her lover, isn't half so gratifying as a tied up knocker to a medical man. But, adieu! and when you want a dinner, you know where to find one—and sure of the best company, that is, sure of venison, turbot, Burgundy, and Champagne. (*Going, stops.*) I say though—that tied up knocker! Coud'dn't you recommend?—No—don't trouble yourself.—Dare say my Radix Rheno has been there already. [*Exeunt.*

Neither wit nor reason, however, will be able to drive the hydra Quackery out of the world. **Fer.**

Art. 18. *Urania; or the Illuminé:* a Comedy, in Two Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Drury Lane. By William Robert Spencer, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Ridgway. 1802.

This agreeable little piece is intended to rally the spectral inclinations of the Germans, which have lately produced such frightful apparitions in the form of novels and plays. The intrigue consists in imposing an earthly Princess on Prince Manfred for a Celestial beauty: but perhaps the subject would have admitted more decoration by the aid of Marmontel's *Mari Sylphe*, which turns on a similar adventure. We shall give a specimen of the dialogue:

'*Arm.* Imprudent Prince! thou shalt soon repent thy rashness in accusing me of imposture. (*Stamps his foot—the Scene opening discovers a Female Figure, elevated on a brilliant cloud.*)

'SONG—FEMALE.

'The star beam of thy natal hour
Ascendant guides thy way;
A spell beyond the wizard's power
My charmed steps obey!

'If no false light thy search allures,
The talisman to miss,
This visionary day ensures
An age of future bliss!

Man. Angel! spirit! oh, speak again; do thou command me; do thou prove me: that voice can never counsel ingratitude or impiety.

Arm. The Powers are kinder to thee than thy deserts can claim: beware of disobedience to her; beware, and prosper. (*The cloud descends to soft music.*) [*Exit.*

Female. Manfred, your faith and long perseverance have prevailed. I am deputed to reward your labours, if you prove yourself really worthy of supernatural protection.

Man. O gracious spirit! one sight of thee has already overpaid all my labours, and all my sacrifices. One single look of thine has already blest me more than all the love of the loveliest of human kind. Oh, tell me by what name I may address thee, and by what means I may preserve thy celestial favour.

Female. I am called Urania. I have long approved your merits, and wished to reward them. But much you have yet to do, to confirm your pretensions to my affection.

Man. My life will be too short to prove the excess and purity of my devotion.

Ura. The colder virtues may require to be proved by length of time; but a single day—a single hour, can give more real proofs of love, than a whole age can furnish. Manfred, the head computes by days and years; the heart's calendar is a calendar of moments, of moments so soft, so bright! they are the down on the wings of Time; and the grains of gold amongst the sand of his hour glass.

Man. Then shall every moment of my existence be a proof of my devotion

Ura. Conrad, your friend, is as yet an enemy to the mystic science; him you must dissuade from his prejudices, and convert to the sect; reveal to him my mission and my nature.—This is all I can communicate at a first interview. Farewell; attempt not to follow me, and remember to obey me. (*The cloud re-ascends to soft music.*)'

Too much prettiness and conceit are displayed in some of the speeches, but, on the whole, the public has been kind to much inferior productions. Fer.

Art. 19. *The Poor Gentleman:* A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent-Garden. By George Colman (the Younger). 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1802.

We have been too much amused with several of the scenes in this comedy, to note its defects and irregularities with rigour; and though it is far from being a finished piece, it occasionally exhibits touches of real merit. The principal comic character in the play is a sporting military apothecary, who shall introduce himself in his own laughable jargon to our readers:

'*Enter* OLLAPOD.

'*Olla.* Sir Charles, I have the honour to be your slave. Hope our health is good. Been a hard winter here—Sore throats were plenty; so were woodcocks. Flush'd four couple, one morning, in a half-mile walk, from our town, to cure Mrs. Quarles of a quinsey. May coming on soon, Sir Charles—season of delight, love, and campaigning! Hope you come to sojourn, Sir Charles. Shouldn't be always on the wing—that's being too flighty. He, he, he! Do you take, good Sir, do you take?

Sir Cha Oh, yes, I take. But, by the cockade in your hat, Ollapod, you have added lately, it seems, to your avocations.

Olla. He! he! yes, Sir Charles. I have, now, the honour to be Cornet in the Volunteer Association Corps, of our town. It fell out unexpected—pop, on a sudden; like the going off of a field-piece, or an alderman in an apoplexy.

Sir Cha. Explain.

Olla. Happening to be at home—rainy day—no going out to sport, blister, shoot, nor bleed—was busy behind the counter—

You know my shop, Sir Charles—Galen's head over the door—new-gilt him last week, by the bye—looks as fresh as a pill.

Sir Cha. Well, no more on that head now—Proceed.

Olla. On that head! he! he! he? That's very well; very well, indeed! Thank you, good Sir, I owe you one.—Churchwarden Posh, of our town, being ill of an indigestion, from eating three pounds of measly pork, at a Vestry dinner, I was making up a cathartick for the patient; when, who should strut into the shop, but Lieutenant Grains, the Brewer—sleek as a dray-horse—in a smart scarlet jacket, tastily turn'd up with a rhubarb-colour'd lapelle. I confess his figure struck me. I look'd at him, as I was thumping the mortar, and felt instantly inoculated with a military ardour.

Sir Cha. Inoculated! I hope your ardour was of a favourable sort.

Olla. Ha! ha! That's very well—very well, indeed!—Thank you, good Sir, I owe you one. We first talk'd of shooting—He knew my celebrity that way, Sir Charles. I told him, the day before, I had kill'd six brace of birds—I thump'd on at the mortar—We then talk'd of physic—I told him, the day before, I had kill'd—lost, I mean,—six brace of patients—I thump'd on at the mortar—eyeing him all the while; for he look'd devilish ſlashy, to be sure; and I felt an itching to belong to the Corps. The medical, und military, both deal in death, you know—so, 'twas natural. He! he!—Do you take, good Sir? do you take?

Sir Cha. Take? Oh, nobody can miss.

Olla. He then talk'd of the Corps itself: said it was sickly; and if a professional person would administer to the health of the Association—dose the men, and drench the horse—he could, perhaps, procure him a Cornetcy.

Sir Cha. Well, you jump'd at the offer?

Olla. Jump'd! I jump'd over the counter—kick'd down Churchwarden Posh's cathartick, into the pocket of Lieutenant Grain's smart scarlet jacket, tastily turn'd up with a rhubarb-colour'd lapelle; embraced him and his offer; and I am now Cornet Ollapod, apothecary, at the Galen's-head, of the Association Corps of Cavalry, at your service.

Sir Cha. I wish you joy of your appointment. You may now distil water for the shop, from the laurels you gather in the field.

Olla. Water for—Oh! laurel water—he! he! Come, that's very well—very well indeed! Thank you, good Sir, I owe you one.'

The play contains, as usual, a dashing, thoughtless character, to display Mr. Lewis's abilities; with rather an over-dose of rustic sentiment, in Sir Roger and his servant: but it is calculated, altogether, to give pleasure in the closet, as well as in representation. Fer.

Art. 20. *Poems and Ballads.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Mawman.

This little volume is very neatly printed, and would make a very pretty present for any sentimental young lady at a boarding school.—It is *all about* love and honour, and seduction and suicide, and other tragical subjects equally new and affecting.—The first and second stanzas are incomparably the best of the whole:

'The

'The drum, "the signal to prepare," was beating,
Responsive to the mellow bugle's sound;
The outposts, charg'd, were in alarm retreating;
And the struck tents were levell'd to the ground:

'Each anxious soldier, earnest in his duty,
Prepar'd in action for the warrior's part;
Save where the tearful eye of sorrowing beauty
Claim'd the soft feeling of a lover's heart.'

In another piece, the sonneteer parleys thus elegantly with a nightingale:

'Say, if by death thy helpless partner fell,
Or captur'd, victim of the wily snare?
Sweet bird of eve! alas, thou can'st not tell,
Save by the melting note that speaks despair.'

The verses are in general sufficiently smooth, and the rhymes tolerably correct:—but we verily believe that there is not a single new image nor combination of images in the volume. *Jeff.*

Art. 21. *Union:* A Poem in Two Parts. Part First. 12mo. pp. 40. 2s. 6d. Boards. Chapple. 1802.

The sentiments of this little composition are in the true spirit of common-place, though the diction rises occasionally to the dignity of the absurd. The author, however, is extremely fluent, and on the whole sufficiently harmonious in the versification. He has copied with considerable success the verbose and lubricated style of Thomson in his *Liberty*, and seems to be tolerably familiar with the phraseology of most of our modern poets.

The poem is intended to commemorate the late happy union of Great Britain and Ireland:—but unfortunately the author has been unable to get forwards to his subject in this *first part* of his performance. It is occupied with an encomium on *that* Union which (as we are told in the argument) "binds each atom to its sphere, and prevents matter from forming an universe of dust, and which preserves the natural and moral world in harmony and order."—There is a little poetical license, perhaps, in giving this great principle the name of *Union*, and something rather too dithyrambic in flying off entirely from the professed subject of the poem, in order to celebrate it. This is the author's invocation:

'Union! prime source of all that's good or grand,
Parent of Beauty, Order, Concord, Peace:
Twin-Sister thou to Harmony Divine!
'Tis thine to hush the Universe to awe.'

On the banishment of Union out of paradise, the author thus addresses the ewes and rams:

'Ye fleecy flocks, go kiss the harmless paw,
And take glad gambols with your tiger friends;
Soon must you weep, the happy truce no more;
Soon must you shrink into your frighted folds,

And bootless parley with the robber wolf.
You never more shall trust your snowy sides
On the soft lap of such a mistress Eve.'

We would humbly suggest that '*Mrs. Adam*' would be a preferable reading in the last line of this quotation;—in other respects, the passage is one of the most superb in the whole performance. Jeff.

Art. 22. *Remonstrance:* with other Poems. By Catherine Hood. 8vo. pp. 112. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

This Remonstrance is addressed to those "incorrigible Jacobins," on whom much good eloquence has been thrown away; and it has scarcely a greater chance of reclaiming them than most of the preceding attempts. The style is feeble, and the versification always drawling and often very incorrect. In tracing the rise of disorders in France, we have these mellifluous lines:

'Hence, Infidelity to public view,
The barriers of conscience soon o'erthrew;
Then manners profligate, devoid of shame,
And ev'ry odious vice which brands thy name,
For vengeance ripe, drew down impending fate,
And a dire revolution wreck'd the state.'

After a not less animated picture of the progress and consummation of the revolutionary horrors, the author poses the adversary with this home question:

'Now, furious demagogue, whate'er thy name,
(To that of patriot thou hast little claim)
Wouldst thou in such a cause as this advance,
And change our liberty for that of France?'

We cannot refuse a place to the following spirited reprehension of a very fashionable and very indefensible practice:

'Oh! shameless violation of his word,
E'en on the holy Sabbath of the Lord,
Mammon, insatiate god of avarice,
Shuffles his spotted plagues, and shakes his rattling dice!'

The smaller poems are rather better than the leading composition. Jeff.

Art. 23. *The Cid*, a Tragedy. In Five Acts. Taken from the French of Corneille. By a Gentleman, formerly a Captain in the Army. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1802.

This tame translation is prefaced by some querulous Latin verses, intitled *Ægroti Questus*, in which the author regrets the suppression of Pharo and E. O. We are sorry that it is not in our power to commend his attempts, either in Latin or English. Fer.

Art. 24. *Juvenile Friendship;* or the Holidays: A Drama, in Three Acts. To which is subjoined, the Arrogant Boy: a Dramatic After-piece, in Verse, intended for the Representation of Children. 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

Among the other infantine pursuits of this age, the rage of writing books for the use of children has spred widely. Instead of abridging their studies, which was the original intention of their voluntary instructors, the child's library is now overburdened with

with compilations; and he learns to trifle, when he ought to be laying the foundation of useful knowlege. We have here a play designed for children, as if children were not already fond enough of plays; and as if it were more necessary to train up the rising generation in the practice of the theatrical art, than to discourage a taste which threatens to extinguish the slight remains of youthful diffidence that are spared by modern education. Fer.

Art. 25. *Carminum rariorum Macaronicorum Delectus. In Usum Ludorum Apollinarium. Fasciculus Primus.* 8vo. pp. 57. Edinburgi. 1801.

The poems in this collection consist of Drummond's well known *Polemo-Middinia;* a version in Latin, *not* Macaronic, of *Chryste-Kirk on the Green;* and a translation of Ovid's Contest between Ajax and Ulysses, into a strange jargon called the Buchan dialect. We apprehend that the editor will find little encouragement to continue this collection. Poor Ovid never was so barbarously treated, since the moment of his exile! Do

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 26. *Medical Researches and Observations,* being a Series of Essays on the Practice of Physic.—Essay 1st, On the Nature, Cause, and Cure of Fevers, with Forms for Extemporaneous Prescription. By Dr. Andrew Ferguson. 8vo. pp. 375. 7s. Boards. Printed at Aberdeen.—Bent, London. 1801.

The author of this work closely follows, in his principles and practice, the doctrines of Brown; whose system, though now (in this country at least) nearly abandoned, he conceives to have simplified and improved the medical art more than the observations and theories of 2000 years. We have frequently had occasion to notice the speculations of the author and the favourers of the *Elementa Medicinæ;* and therefore we deem it unnecessary to enter into a detailed examination of the present work, which is founded on the same basis, and possesses no novelty of illustration nor of remark.

That the proximate cause of fever is debility, and that the cure depends on the proper employment of stimulants, is the sum of the author's doctrine; and yet, with whatever apparent facility his plan may be carried into effect, from the similarity of the action of the medicines, he has occupied 50 pages and enumerated 292 different forms in prescribing extemporaneously the drink, diet, and medicines recommended in more general terms in his essay.

Dr. Ferguson has introduced some trifling alterations in the general terms employed by the Brunonians; such as the substitution of *vitality* and *vitalment* for *exciteability* and *excitement.* Yell. 1st Art.

Art. 27. *Practical Observations on the Inoculation of Cow-Pox.* Pointing out a Test of a Constitutional Affection, in those Cases in which the Inflammation is slight, and in which no Fever is perceptible. Illustrated by Cases and Plates. By H. Bryce, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinburgh, &c. 8vo. pp. 236. 6s. 6d. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1802.

This

This work contains a correct and perspicuous account of the history and principal facts of Vaccine Inoculation; and the author confirms, by considerable experience in Edinburgh, the decisive evidence which has already been laid before the public respecting the safety and utility of this practice. From a consideration of the well known fact that a second puncture, in variolous inoculation which has taken effect, will, though made some days afterward, be as soon in maturity as the first, the author was induced to adopt a similar criterion to judge of the existence of constitutional affection in inoculated cow-pox. He found that, when he made a second insertion of vaccine matter in the opposite arm, on the 5th day from the first puncture, the progress of the second pustule, if the constitution had been affected, was so much accelerated as to have the same appearances on the 4th day, that the first pustule presented on the 9th. This, therefore, he conceived to be the test of constitutional affection; for when the effects of the first puncture were merely local, the second (he imagined) would, in the same way as in small-pox, preserve its usual course uninfluenced by the first. The vesicles produced by the second inoculation, he observes, were always considerably smaller than those of the first, but in appearance they were perfect.

These experiments seem to us ingenious and satisfactory: but we do not conceive that they will be of much practical utility; because, by adopting the mode recommended, there would be a great increase of trouble and inconvenience, for the very small chance of the occurrence of a regular local pustule, in no degree differing from a regular constitutional one: particularly where there are no means of previously determining when such a circumstance is likely to take place.

The acceleration mentioned above will occur at whatever period after the first inoculation the second is made: but the author considers the fifth day as the most advisable for the experiment. Yell.

Art. 28. *The First Number of Veterinary Transactions:* containing Observations on the Effects and Treatment of Wounds of Joints, and other circumscribed Cavities. Published by Order of the General Meeting of Subscribers to the Veterinary College. 8vo. 3s. 6d. stitched. Debrett. 1801.

The medical treatment of one of the most noble and useful animals of the brute creation has, till lately, been intrusted solely to an ignorant and interested class of men, totally destitute of that previous information which is necessary to enable them to comprehend the nature of those diseases which they professed to cure. It is not therefore extraordinary that an attempt should have been made to remedy this evil, by founding an institution, in which the principles of veterinary science are taught, and the practice illustrated by the actual observation of disease. Our readers already know that such an institution, under the name of the Veterinary College, was begun by private subscription in the year 1791, and since the year 1795 has received from Parliament a handsome annual allowance for promoting the views of the establishment. The publication before us is the work of the Professor, Mr. Coleman, and is the commencement of a plan settled

at a general meeting of the subscribers, to publish annually some of the most remarkable cases which should occur at this College.

In a preface of considerable length, the author states some of the advantages of a veterinary establishment, and points out many of the sources of opposition which must necessarily be made to it, for some time, by interested individuals.

We then come to the medical observations; in illustration of which, seven cases and two plates are given; and which are confined to wounds of circumscribed cavities, including those of joints, tendinous sheaths, and veins: all of these possessing, in Mr. C.'s opinion, something in common. In the wounds of joints, mucous capsules, and sheaths of tendons, the Professor recommends the actual cautery; and he employs the same remedy in wounds of the chest and abdomen, and in inflammations of the cavities of veins which have succeeded bleeding: but, in the latter case, when cautery is insufficient to stop the hæmorrhage, the vein is to be taken up by ligature.

The regulations of the establishment, and a list of the subscribers, are annexed.

Yell.

Art. 29. *Heads of Lectures on the Institutions of Medicine.* By Andrew Duncan, M. D. & P. 5th Edition. 8vo. Boards. Edinburgh; London, Robinsons. 1801.

As the utility of this work must of necessity be principally confined to those gentlemen, who have an opportunity of attending the lectures given by the learned author in the University of Edinburgh, we shall enter no farther into an account of it than will suffice to point out its principal divisions.—In the first part, the author treats of Pathological Physiology, in which he considers the nature, properties. and morbid affections of the different solids and fluids of the animal body, and of the most important organs. The second part relates to the subject of Therapeutics, the third to Medical Jurisprudence, and the 4th treats on Medical Police; to which last are subjoined some introductory observations, respecting the nature, extent, and importance of the subject.

D.o

POLITICS.

Art. 30. *Financial and Political Facts of the Eighteenth Century;* with comparative Estimates of the Revenue, Expenditure, Debts, Manufactures, and Commerce of Great Britain. By John M'Arthur, Esq. Author of a Treatise on Naval Courts Martial. Third Edition. With an Appendix of useful and interesting Documents. The whole revised, corrected, and considerably enlarged. 8vo. pp. 360. 6s. Boards. Wright. 1801.

The first edition of this work appeared as an half-crown pamphlet, without the author's name; and in M R. Vol. xxxiv. p. 327, we particularly noticed the object and tendency of the writer; viz to keep up the spirits of the nation, by such views of our strength and resources as were calculated to diffuse hope and banish despair. This pamphlet is now grown into a handsome octavo volume, by the addition of new matter; and the original plan is also in some degree altered.

tered. Mr. M'Arthur continues to throw a bright tint over our prospects:

'When we reflect (he says) on a *fact* no less curious than unexampled in the history of mankind, of a public revenue exceeding the aggregate amount of the annual rent-roll of cultivated landed property in the state, including the general income arising from tithes and houses, we should be apt to conclude, on a superficial view of the subject, that our national resources and public exertions had reached their climax and closed with the eighteenth century.—I shall, however, endeavour to prove that the national resources have not even yet been entirely called forth, nor stretched to the utmost; and that, should any future exigency unhappily render it necessary to draw them more fully into action, they may, like the cords of a bow, safely be strained to a greater tension than it is possible at present to imagine, without the risk of breaking the one or the other.'

This is politic doctrine, if it be not a political fact; perhaps it is more the former than the latter, for in excessive straining there must be some danger of snapping either bow or string.

Mr. M'Arthur's Appendix contains tables exhibiting,—The State of the Public Revenue, and of the Public Expenditure, from 1700 to 1800.—The official Value of Imports and Exports, and apparent Balance of Trade, distinguishing the official Value of West India Imports into Great Britain, for upwards of one hundred years.—A List of the Supplies and Ways and Means for the Eighteenth Century.—A General View of the Public Debt.—Official Report of the Imports and Exports of France, for the 8th year of the Republic; made by the Minister of the Interior, to the French Consuls, May 1801.—And a table exhibiting the Commerce of the Port of London, as made up from the Public Accounts for one year, ending the 5th January 1798, with the real Value of Foreign Imports and Exports, estimated from the Payment of the Convoy Duty.

These documents are curious, and their appearance here seems to prove that Mr. M'Arthur has minutely attended to the subjects which he has undertaken to discuss. Mo-y.

Art. 31. *Thoughts on the late General Election*, as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism. By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons, &c. 1802.

Long before the existence of the Jacobin club in France, contests and disputations prevailed in our own country, respecting all the great subjects connected with liberty; and the names of Whig and Tory sufficiently expressed the two contending parties. We perceive no good reason, therefore, for importing into British political controversy, a cant term which originated in the French Revolution. For the purposes of calumny and irritation, alone, can the word *Jacobinism* be employed; and it seems to be deemed good policy to stigmatize the adherents to old-fashioned Whiggism with this opprobrious epithet, and to assert that it is at least the parent of the Jacobinical system. This is a *ruse de guerre* of which Mr. Bowles very liberally avails himself; and consequently no Whig, who should avow the doctrines maintained by Lord Somers, must now expect to escape this

this gentleman's attacks. Even popular elections are Jacobinical; and Jacobinical must be every reviewer who is not of the same opinion.

Without discussing farther the propriety of the term by which Mr. B. marks his hostility, let us notice the particular objects of his condemnation, and the temper which pervades his pamphlet. Few persons require to be informed that liberty is often regarded by the vulgar as synonymous with licentiousness; and that, in collecting popular suffrages, some vice, irregularity, and folly will be displayed: but it would be difficult to prove that the last election for Middlesex, to which this writer chiefly directs his attention, displayed more of what he denominates Jacobinism, than the famous contest in which John Wilkes was returned. We desire not to justify all the proceedings of the late election: but we shall remark that, if popular effervescence and clamour on the part of a favourite candidate with the multitude be an evidence of Jacobinism, Jacobinism is almost inseparable from a representative system.—Mr. B. says that 'it is astonishing that there should be found a man daring enough to insinuate that the people of this country are not fairly represented;' hence all the measures which were pursued to obtain an amended representation, and in particular the corresponding societies, with the "acquitted felons," are severely reprobated; and Mr. Horne Tooke is accused (it is said on solid grounds) of having a principal share in the composition of the "Rights of Man," and of being the most dangerous person in this country.—The State Trials, the Treason and Sedition Bills, the suspension of the Habeas Corpus Act, and the conduct of the Cold-Bath Fields' Prison, are all justified by Mr. B., and encomiums on Mr. Mainwaring and Aris the governor, are subjoined.

Sir Francis Burdett is introduced for another purpose. His conduct is very strongly condemned; and one sentence in his address of thanks is censured with sufficient reason. What Sir Francis meant by "*hired* Magistrates, Parliaments, and *Kings*," has never been explained: but Mr. B. regards the expression as an evidence of Sir Francis's wish to subvert the monarchy; and his flag inscribed *No Bastile* is called standard for insurrection.—The Case of the *Mill voters* is also particularly considered; and the conduct of the Sheriffs in admitting them to poll calls forth some pointed animadversions. It has been reported that some of these holders of shares in the Isleworth mill voted for Mr. Mainwaring: but this assertion is here (and we believe, with truth,) denied. One did attempt to vote for him, but was refused by Mr. M.'s inspector as illegal.

Though we are as little disposed as Mr. Bowles to justify the arts which are practised in the popular choice of Members of Parliament, we cannot allow that those very circumstances, which he with reason reprobates, are demonstrations of the progress of Jacobinism; because, long before he was born, it seems to have been thought that "*all was fair* at Elections, as at *Foot-ball*." Still it may be wise to make some regulations to prevent the recurrence of irregularity and disorder on these occasions; and some of Mr. B.'s thoughts in this

this respect merit consideration. It is always seasonable to inculcate the necessity of Social Order, and the duty of submission to the laws; to discountenance sedition; and to cherish a love for our admirable Constitution: but, in the performance of this task, no spirit of party should appear; for there is no justice, nor any wisdom, in representing those who would guard with peculiar care the popular part of the Constitution, as desirous of subverting the whole. Mo.y.

Art. 32. *A Review of Public Affairs since the Commencement of the present Century.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Knight and Triphook.

The events which preceded and led to the treaties of London and Amiens are here detailed, and the merits of the Peace discussed. It is maintained that, if the Definitive Treaty be not glorious, it is certainly honourable and advantageous; and, in short, the whole pamphlet is designed to prove that the nation ought to be satisfied with the conduct of Mr. Addington, whom this writer represents as having already run the full career of a distinguished minister. Do

EDUCATION.

Art. 33. *A New English Spelling Book*, or Key to the English Language; in which its Difficulties are simplified, and its Beauties pointed out: interspersed with numerous Observations, &c. &c. By John Robinson, Mathematician. 12mo. 1s. Vernor and Hood.

It must ever be considered as bad taste, and will ever be found to be bad policy, when an author is lavish of commendation on his own performance. Mr. Robinson says that his work 'forms one of the completest books of rudimental instruction, from *infancy* to *manhood*, ever yet offered to the public, for *foreigners* as well as *natives*.' We cannot assent to this declaration, and it renders us perhaps less willing to bestow that praise on the publication which we should otherwise have felt to be its due. It certainly is not deficient in merit, but neither is it free from imperfections; and in particular on the subject of pronunciation, we could enumerate many objections to the author's rules. Altogether, however, if it be not 'one of the *completest*,' we are willing to place it among the *better* sort of English Spelling Books. Hi. G.2.

Art. 34. *Moral Tales for Young People.* By Maria Edgeworth, Author of Practical Education, &c. 12mo. 5 Vols. 15s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.

These tales for young people may be perused with benefit by people of all ages. They are lessons of sound judgment adapted to the various events of real life, interesting the mind and fixing the attention without inflaming the imagination. Forester, a young man from whom the first story is intitled, is a character which, though it may be called excentric, is by no means uncommon, especially in our times. Despising the general forms and mutual dependencies of civilized society, he is led away by a thousand visionary schemes of beneficence and happiness; which, by improper management and untoward circumstances, or merely by not falling under discreet control, would probably

probably have rendered him a fanatic, and plunged him in guilt. This tale is ingeniously wrought, and well related.

The counterpart to this tale is the little narrative which bears the name of Angelina, a female character of the same cast: in which the nonsense of sentimentality is judiciously attacked with the shafts of ridicule. With the romantic excentricities of Angelina, are contrasted faults of a more vulgar and despicable sort. In Miss Burrage, is delineated the picture of a young lady who meanly flatters persons of distinction, in order to insinuate herself into their good graces; and who, after having smuggled herself (as the author expresses it) into genteel company, is ashamed to acknowlege her former friends, to whom she was bound by the strongest ties of gratitude.

Under the title of 'the Bad Governess,' we are presented with a faithful sketch of the necessary consequences of imprudently committing the happiness of a daughter, to the care of those who are incapable of teaching any thing but *accomplishments*.

The 'Prussian Vase,' while it affords a good lesson against imprudence, is at the same time an exercise of judgment, and an excellent eulogium on our trial by jury. This tale, we are informed by Mr. Edgeworth, who writes the preface, is principally designed for young gentlemen who are destined to the bar.

'The Good Governess' is a lesson in the art of giving lessons, and we think that it would be no easy task to deliver a better.

In 'the Good Aunt,' are pointed out the advantages which a judicious early education confers on those who are intended for public seminaries.—In short, these tales are written with the design of illustrating the opinions delivered in the elaborate work formerly published by this author and her father, intitled, "Practical Education."

T..ke.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 35. *An Essay or Practical Inquiry concerning the Hanging and Fastening of Gates and Wickets*, with Plates. By Thomas N. Parker, Esq. M. A. 8vo. 2s. Lackington and Co.

The principles of science being of universal application, wise men will endeavour to extend them to the most minute concerns. Philosophy not only explains to us the vast system of Nature, but instructs us in what manner every process and operation may be most perfectly and advantageously performed. Farmers and country gentlemen well know how troublesome gates are which are injudiciously hung and fastened, and will not deem Mr. Parker's Inquiry beneath their notice, which endeavours to lay down some rules for directing those who are employed in this part of rural business. The principles which should govern the operator in hanging gates and wickets are first considered; next their practical application is shewn; and hence the author passes to the Fastening of Gates and Wickets, to their mode of construction, and to give some rules for making different kinds of Fences.

The Principles of Hanging Gates are thus given:

'When

'When the hooks or pivots upon which a gate is hung are precisely in the same perpendicular line with each other, the gate will be at rest wherever it may be placed.

'But the smallest variation of the hooks from their perpendicular line will attach to a gate so suspended one determinate line of rest and no other.'

'When a gate is in its line of rest, or in its opposite line of equilibrium, the two hooks by which it is suspended, and the centre of the gate's gravitation, will be found to be in one and the same vertical plane.'

After having laid down these fundamental propositions, Mr. P. advances to their application, and illustrates his instructions by references to plates. He remarks 'that all gate posts and gates ought to be placed perpendicularly, and that all road gates should shut of themselves, nearly from the half circle.' To render his pamphlet practically useful, every particular respecting its subject is considered; and a Table of proportion is given in regard to Hooks and Thimbles, supposing a gate to be a right angled parallelogram, set forth in inches and twelfth parts of inches.

The remarks on latches and catches, and on fencing, evince the author's attention to the subject: but the want of the plates precludes us from exhibiting his ideas. As, however, the pamphlet is cheap, those whom it may concern will perhaps be as well pleased by our recommending the whole as by our transcribing parts of it.

Mo.y.

CORRESPONDENCE.

Our 'constant Reader,' who inquires concerning a publication intitled *Alfred, a Vision*, is informed that the work is now on our table, and that we hope soon to direct our attention to it.

The communication from Whitby, respecting a certain *Conflagration*, is received: but the matter is not of sufficient importance to induce us to *burn our fingers*, by any interference.

NOTICE.

We find ourselves so frequently requested to announce *new impressions* of books, that we are obliged to give this notice that it is not within our plan always to insert accounts of such new editions, and that we shall not depart from this rule without having some reason for the deviation: such as the importance of the work, and of the additions or alterations: in which instances, our own judgment must form our sole guide.

Errors - Lee

Pages 243, 273, 275, 297, 313, 314, 322, 324, 328, 333.